CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE WESTERN PORTION OF THE LIBERTY HALL TRACT, BERKELEY COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 375

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of a 672 acre tract in the southwest portion of Berkeley County, near the town of Goose Creek, South Carolina. The work, conducted for Walt Martin of Centex Homes, is meant to assist the association in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract is to be used by Centex Homes for the construction of a subdivision of single family homes. The survey area is situated on the west side of the U.S. Naval Reservation, with S-529 (Liberty Hall Road) bordering the project tract to the south. A powerline right-of-way runs through a portion of the project area and several hunting roads made access to the entire tract easy.

This survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites which may be in the project domain. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 1.0 mile around the proposed tract was assumed. The proposed undertaking will require clearing, grubbing, grading, and filling in of wetlands along with the construction of both underground utilities as well as above ground structures. There will likely be short-term construction impacts, including increased noise and dust levels, and increased construction related traffic. The long-term affects will primarily be an increase of traffic from the new residents.

A countywide architectural survey from 1989, shows three structures within the APE of the proposed undertaking. All three of these sites have been determined not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. In addition, one National Register site, Medway Plantation, is in the area, although outside the 1.0 mile APE. This site will be buffered from the development activities by woodlots and the proposed project will not have any effect on the historic structure.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology identified no sites within the project area, but identified eight sites (38BK89, 38BK1673, 38BK1721, 38BK1835, 38BK1840-1843) within the 1.0 mile APE. Two of these sites 38BK1840 and 38BK1841) were recommended potentially eligible with artifacts dating to the eighteenth and nineteenth century. These sites are most likely connected to Liberty Hall Plantation. All the other sites were recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. 38BK89 represents a very sparse nineteenth to twentieth century domestic scatter, 38BK1673 was a sparse twentieth century scatter of artifacts, and 38BK1721 contained a domestic scatter of nineteenth century artifacts. 38BK1835 contained prehistoric materials from the Late Archaic, 38BK1842 was a Middle Woodland scatter of artifacts, and 38BK1843 contained Late Archaic ceramics and an Early to Middle Woodland scatter of artifacts.

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects laid out at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. In the wetland areas, no shovel tests were performed, but a pedestrian survey was still completed. A total of 1,680 shovel tests were excavated along 209 transect lines. Eighty-seven additional tests were excavated at the one identified site.

As a result of these investigations, one historic site, 38BK1900, was uncovered. 38BK1900 is an eighteenth century plantation settlement situated on a ridge top surrounded by old rice fields. This site is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Place due to its ability to provide information about the local plantation life.

A survey of public roads within a mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to

identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. No such sites, other than those recorded by Schneider (1989), were found. One of the previously recorded architectural sites (346-0013) has been demolished since the original survey while the other two (346-0001 and 276-0006) are still recommended not eligible because of alterations.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Walt Martin of Centex Homes. The work was conducted to assist Centex Homes in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of approximately 672 acres of land proposed to be used for a single family neighborhood located in southwest Berkeley County near the town of Goose Creek (Figure 1). A considerable portion of the tract (almost 290 acres or about 43%) is considered wetland, with the rest of the tract located in higher areas of mixed pines and hardwoods.

The tract, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used primarily for a single family neighborhood. This will entail the construction of infrastructure, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities, as well as the construction of residences. Combined, these activities will include clearing of timber, grubbing, grading, and excavations — all activities which may cause significant damage to any archaeological resources present.

There will also be some short-term construction related affects, such as increased noise, construction traffic on Liberty Hall Road, and increased dust levels. There will be a need for erosion control and it is anticipated that there will be a need for U.S. Army Corps of Engineers wetland fill permits.

There are no considerations of long-term secondary affects, such as increased traffic, changes in property values, or additional development spurred by this undertaking.

We should point out that this portion of Berkeley County is being rapidly converted from a rural enclave to a suburban or bed-room community for Charleston. Development along nearby US 52 is spreading eastward along roads such as Liberty Hall and outward from Goose Creek.

We were requested by Mr. Walt Martin of Centex Homes to provide a proposal for the survey in February 2002. The proposal was accepted and subsequent background investigations began shortly thereafter.

These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work, eight sites (38BK89, 38BK1673, 38BK1721, 38BK1835, 38BK1840-1843) were found in the 1.0 mile APE. Two of these sites (38BK1840 and 38BK1841) were recommended potentially eligible with artifacts dating to the eighteenth and nineteenth century. These sites are most likely connected to Liberty Hall Plantation, but are off the survey tract and are on adjacent land owned by the Federal government. All the other sites were recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. 38BK89 represents a very sparse nineteenth to twentieth century domestic scatter, 38BK1673 was a sparse twentieth century scatter of artifacts, and 38BK1721 contained a domestic scatter of nineteenth century artifacts. 38BK1835 contained prehistoric materials from the Late Archaic, 38BK1842 was a Middle Woodland scatter of artifacts, and 38BK1843 contained Late Archaic ceramics and an Early to Middle Woodland scatter of artifacts.

The South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. A comprehensive architectural survey was performed in 1989 for Berkeley County (Schneider 1989) so the SHPO

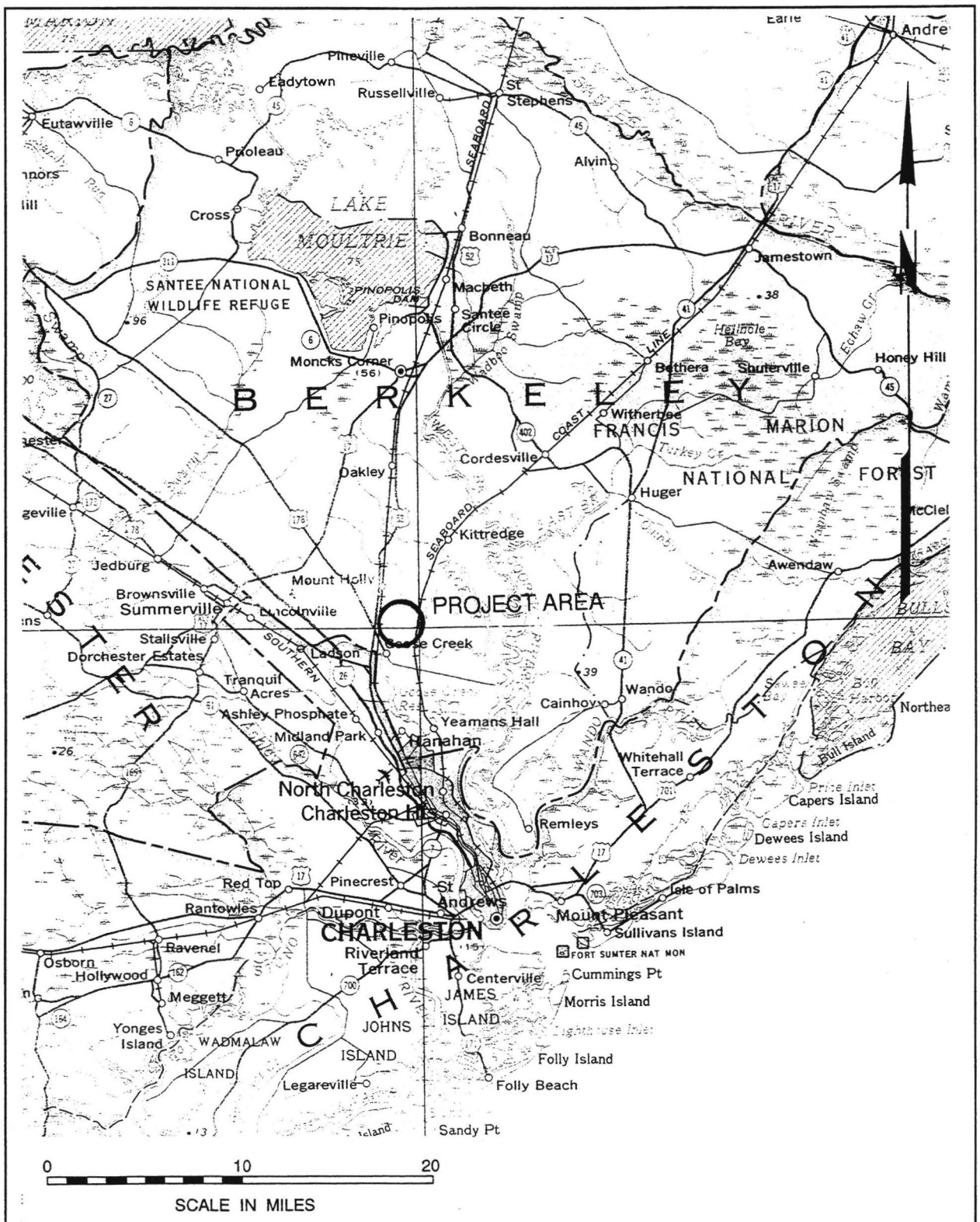

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Berkeley County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

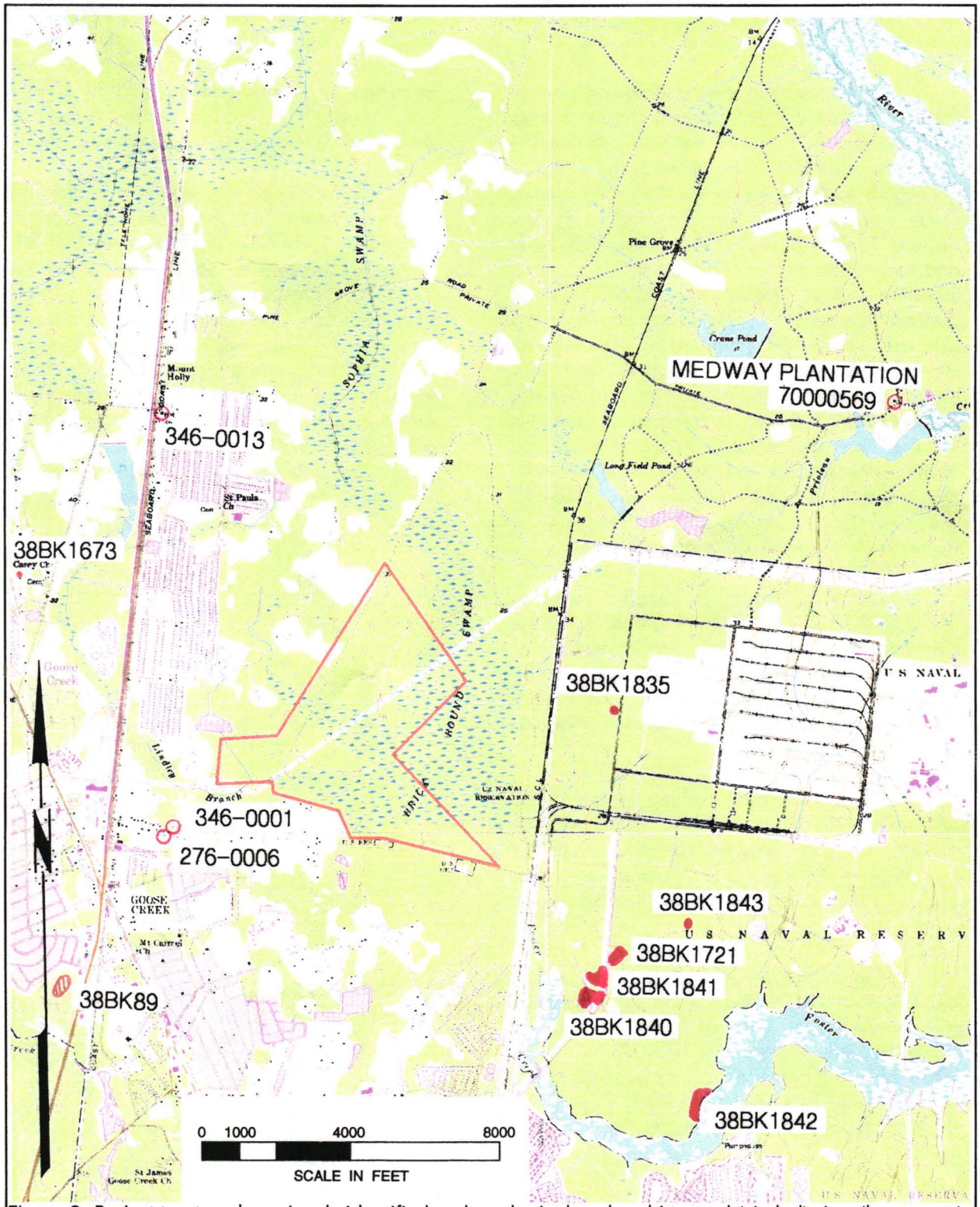

Figure 2. Project tract and previously identified archaeological and architectural (circled) sites (basemap is USGS Ladson, Mt.Holly, and Kittredge 7.5').

files are considered complete and well documented for the study area.

As discussed in greater detail elsewhere, there are no previously identified architectural sites on the study tract. The three previously identified in the APE have all been determined by the SHPO as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. These structures were briefly revisited by Dr. Michael Trinkley during the course of this study and are discussed in additional detail in a following section. One site has apparently been destroyed for development and the remaining two sites are identical in condition to their original survey. They have been modified and lack individual merit. There is one National Register site, Medway Plantation, in the general area, but this site is outside the 1-mile APE and is buffered from the development activities by woodlots under the control of the owners of Medway. Consequently, this project will not directly — or indirectly — affect any historic structures.

Archival and historical research incorporated both primary sources available at the Charleston County RMC, Berkeley County Clerk of Court, as well as secondary sources readily available at Chicora Foundation. The historic background was compiled by Ms. Sarah Fick and Dr. Michael Trinkley.

The archaeological survey was conducted on from April 15 to May 10 by Mr. Tom Covington and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley and revealed one site, 38BK1900, situated within the proposed project area.

Site 38BK1900 is an eighteenth century plantation settlement which is situated on a ridge top surrounded by old rice fields. This site is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Place under Criterion D because of its ability to provide information about early plantation life in the Goose Creek area.

The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age which retain their integrity revealed no structures other than those previously recorded by Schneider (1989). The area has been heavily impacted by development since 1989 and there are a number of modern houses, mixed with mobile homes and commercial development.

Laboratory work and report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from June 3-6, 2002. Three archaeological site forms for the sites identified during this investigation have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA). The field notes, artifact catalog, and artifacts resulting from these investigations will be curated at SCIAA and will be maintained by that institution in perpetuity. The only photographic materials associated with this project are color prints, which are not archival. The negatives and prints for these photographs are retained by Chicora Foundation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Berkeley County is situated in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina. Containing about 1,100 square miles, it is bordered by Georgetown County to the northeast, Charleston County to the southeast and southwest, Dorchester County to the west, Orangeburg County to the northwest, and Clarendon and Williamsburg counties to the north.

The topography of the county is characterized by subtle undulations characteristic of beach ridge plains. The elevations range from sea level to approximately 105 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). The project tract is situated on elevations ranging from 10 feet to 30 feet AMSL. The area is predominately covered by swamp which stays fairly level, but the upland area surrounding the swamp is slightly undulating.

Berkeley is drained by three significant river systems: the Santee, Wando, and Cooper Rivers. The Santee has a large freshwater discharge and forms the northern boundary with neighboring Georgetown County. The Wando is a coastal river and is dominated by tidal action. The Cooper River, which flows through the center of the County, was also originally a tidal river, but has been modified by a large volume of fresh water diverted from the Santee through Lakes Marion and Moultrie. In addition, there are a number of broad, low gradient interior drainages that are present either as extensions of tidal streams or flooded bays and swales (Long 1980).

The eastern edge of the survey tract is covered by the Brick Bound Swamp which is a large drainage for the area. Lindley Branch, which eventually feeds into Goose Creek, flows into the swamp. There are approximately 17,500 acres of freshwater marsh and 4,300 acres of impounded marsh in Berkeley County (Long 1980). Much of this acreage was related to the production of upland rice.

Geology and Soils

As previously mentioned, Berkeley County

Figure 3. View of pines and hardwoods on tract looking northwest.


Figure 4. View of dike where beaver damage has cause water to break through.

is made up of one broad physiographic area, often called the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain or the Atlantic Coast Flatwoods (Long 1980). The surface soils are almost entirely sedimentary and were transported into the area from other places. The geology of Berkeley County is characteristic of the region with the sands, clays, gravels, and phosphates covering the surface dating to the Pleistocene (Long 1980).

There are nine soils found in the project area. The two most common soils found on the survey tract are Lenoir fine sandy loams and Meggett loams and clay loams. The Meggett soils are found in the swamp areas and have a very dark gray (10YR3/1) loam to a depth of 0.2 foot over a dark gray (10YR4/1) loam which occurs to a depth of 0.6 foot. The Lenoir series, also found near the swamp areas, have a layer of black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.3 foot over a dark gray (10YR4/1) very fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.6 foot. The subsurface is a layer of light yellowish brown (2.5Y6/4) very fine sandy loam which can occur to a depth of 1.3 feet.

Also found near the swamp area are Goldsboro loamy sands, Carolina fine sandy loams, Craven loams, and Wahee loams. Goldsboro soils have a surface layer of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy sand to a depth of 0.6 foot over a light yellowish brown (2.5Y6/4) loamy sand to a depth of 1.2 feet. Caroline fine sandy loams have a surface layer of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.3 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR5/4) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.7 foot. Craven soils have a small layer of dark gray (10YR4/1) loam for two inches over a layer of pale brown (10YR6/3) silt loam to a depth of 0.6 foot. The subsurface consists of a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) clay to just under a foot. The Wahee series has a three inch layer of very dark gray (10YR3/1) loam over a dark gray (10YR4/1) loam to a depth of 0.4 foot. A light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) silty clay loam is beneath that to a depth of 0.8 foot.

The final three soils, Duplin fine sandy loams, Norfolk loamy sands, and Ocilla loamy fine sands, are found in the plow zone. The Duplin soils have an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR5/6) clay loam to a depth of 1.3 feet. Norfolk soils have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy sand to a depth of 0.5 foot over a dark yellowish brown (10YR4.4) sandy loam to a depth of 0.8 foot. Often a strong brown (7.5YR5/6) sandy clay loam is beneath this which can occur to almost 3.0

feet. Ocilla soils have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sandy to a depth of 0.6 foot over a pale brown (10YR6/3) loamy fine sand to 1.0 foot in depth.


Figure 5. View of 'dry' bay looking northwest.

Climate

Berkeley County has a subtropical climate, characterized by warm summers, mild winters, and adequate precipitation fairly evenly spread throughout the year. Except in the summer, when maritime tropical air controls the climate of the area, the daily weather patterns are controlled by west to east moving pressure systems and associated fronts.

Yearly precipitation averages 47 inches, but ranges from 39 to 55 inches (Long 1980). The growing season, from April to September, receives an average of 31 inches or about 66% of the yearly total. The average length of the freeze-free growing season is approximately 260 days, although frosts can occur as early as October 26 and as late as April 15 (Long 1980).

Mills remarked in 1826 that Carolina was similar to European climates, lying at a similar latitude. He noted that

> in comparing the climate of South Carolina, with similar climates in Europe, we find it lying under the same atmospheric influences with Aix, Rochelle, Montpelier, Lyons, Bordeaux, and other parts of France; with Milan, Turin, Padua, Mantua, and other parts of Italy (Mills 1972 [1826]).

The coastal region is a moderately high risk zone for tropical storms, with 169 hurricanes being documented from 1686 to 1972 (0.59 per year) (Mathews et al. 1980). One of the most devastating in the eighteenth century was the hurricane of September 15, 1752. One report listed 92 people drowned, although the death toll, especially among the African American slaves was likely much higher. The storm also had considerable long-term effects. Calhoun notes

> the destruction of trees was severe; one plantation owner's loss was assessed at $50,000 and many of those trees which survived were "heart-shaken," and unfit for use. Crops were even more damaged as the storm followed a severe drought. It was necessary to enact laws to regulate the exportation and sale of corn, "Peafe," and small rice, so that "the poor may be able to purchase Provisions at a

moderate Price" (Calhoun 1983).

Floristics

Speaking of the coastal plain Braun observed that

> the vegetation of this region is in part warm temperate-subtropical, in part distinctively coastal plain, and in part temperate deciduous. It is made up of widely different forest communities – coniferous, mixed coniferous and hardwood, deciduous hardwood, and mixed deciduous and broad-leaved evergreen hardwood – interrupted here and there by swamps, bogs, and prairies. The large number of unlike communities is related to the diverse environmental conditions of the region (Braun 1974).

Indeed, an examination of the region around Berkeley County reveals tremendous diversity. One detailed study revealed a mosaic including the oak-hickory-pine forest common to upland areas, oak-gum-bald cypress forest typical of the southern floodplains, pine forests found in mesic to xeric upland sites, mesophytic broadleaved forests on more mesic slope sites, old rice fields, and a variety of swamp forests such as the tupelo-cypress, low hardwood, and ridge hardwoods (Federal Power Commission 1977). All of these forest types have different dominants and different understory vegetation (see Barry 1980).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

Berkeley County has received a significant amount of archaeological attention. Goose Creek, in particular, has had several surveys including those by Charles and Davis (1987), Adams (1994), and Bailey et al. (2002). South and Hartley (1980) provide information about the locality of plantations – being located on high ground adjacent to deep water. Surveys performed on nearby Mt. Holly Plantation (Poplin et al. 1978) and the Crowfield development tract (Elliot 1987) have revealed that plantations are generally found on terrace edges adjacent to the swamps where the inland rice would have been grown.

Prehistoric Overview

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie 1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

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[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

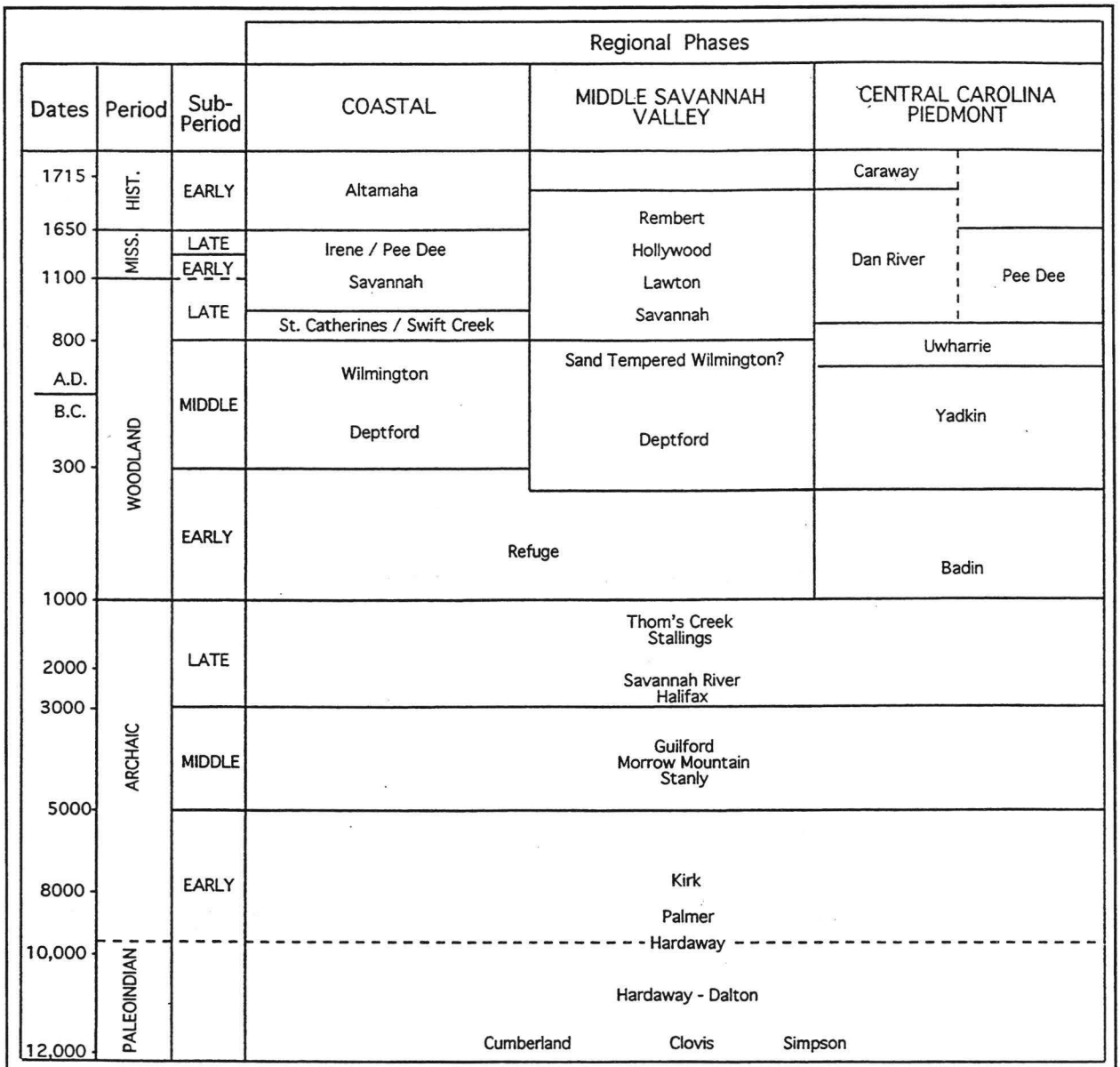

Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see,

however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Woodland artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem. Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups which would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

the seasonal transhumance

> model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of

South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.[3] This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

[3] The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County (Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historic Overview

The English established the first permanent settlement in what is today South Carolina in 1670 on the west bank of the Ashley River. Like other European powers, the English were brought to the New World for reasons other than the acquisitions of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth.

By 1680 the settlers of Albermarle Point had moved their village across the bay to the tip of the peninsula formed by the Ashley and Cooper Rivers. This new settlement at Oyster Point would become modern-day Charleston. The move provided not only a more healthful climate and an area of better defense, but

> the situation of this Town is so convenient for public Commerce that it rather seems to be the design of some skillful Artist than the accidental position of nature (Mathews 1954).

The early settlers of the Carolina colony came from other mainland colonies, England, and the European continent. But the future of Carolina was largely directed by the large number of colonists from the English West Indies. This Caribbean connection has been discussed by Waterhouse (1975), who argues that the Caribbean immigrants were largely from old families of economic and political prominence which formed the Barbados elite. Waterhouse observes that while elsewhere in the American colonies the early settled families were displaced from their established positions of power and economic superiority by newcomers, this did not occur in South Carolina. In Carolina

> a relatively large proportion of those who, in the middle of the eighteenth century, were among the wealthier inhabitants, were descended from those families who had arrived in the colony during the first twenty years of its settlement (Waterhouse 1975).

This immigration turned out to be a significant factor in the stability and longevity of South Carolina's colonial elite. It also firmly established the foundations of slavery and cash crop

plantations.

Many of these Barbadian immigrants settled in the Goose Creek area, forming one of the most influential political and economic groups in the colony (Stoney 1938). The "Goose Creek Men" included individuals such as Maurice Mathews, James Moore and John Boone. They favored increased Indian slavery, trade with the pirates or privateers that sailed the Carolina coast, and generally ignored the efforts of the Lords Proprietors to control the Colony's economic and political future. While the political power of the Goose Creek faction peaked in the 1720s, it continued to evidence considerable economic power well into the late 1740s (see Morgan 1980; Sirmans 1966).

Early agricultural experiments which involved olives, grapes, silkworms, and oranges were less than successful. While the Indian trade was profitable to many of the Carolina colonies, it did not provide the Proprietors with the wealth they were expecting from the new colony. This trade was also limited since the Indian population was so dramatically reduced by European disease, the sale of alcohol, and slavery.

Cattle raising was also an easy way to exploit the region's land and resources, offering a relatively secure return for very little capital investment. Few slaves were necessary to manage the herd. The mild climate of the low country made winter forage more abundant and winter shelters unnecessary. The salt marshes on the coast, useless for other purposes, provided excellent grazing and eliminated the need to provide salt licks. More interior swamps found similar vegetation and provided a constant water supply (Coon 1972; Dunbar 1961). Production of cattle, hogs, and sheep quickly outstripped local consumption and by the early eighteenth century beef and pork were principal exports of the Colony to the West Indies (Ver Steeg 1975). This allowed the ties between Carolina and the Caribbean to remain strong and provided essential provisions to the large scale, single crop plantations.

Rice and indigo both competed for the attention of Carolina planters. Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the Proprietors with the economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system – slavery.

South Carolina's economic development during the pre-Revolutionary War period involved a complex web of interactions between slaves, planters, and merchants. By 1710 slaves were starting to be concentrated on a few, large slave-holding plantations. by the close of the eighteenth century some South Carolina plantations had a ratio of slaves to whites that was 27:1 (Morgan 1977). And by the end of the century over half of eastern South Carolina's white population held slaves. With slavery came, to many, unbelievable wealth. Coclanis notes that:

> on the eve of the American Revolution, the white population of the low country was by far the richest single group in British North America. With the area's wealth based largely on the expropriation by whites of the golden rice and blue dye produced by black slaves, the Carolina low country had by 1774 reached a level of aggregate wealth greater than that in many parts of the world today. The evolution of Charleston, the center of the low-country civilization, reflected not only the growing wealth of the area but also its spirit and soul (Coclanis 1989).

Only certain areas of the low country, however, were suitable for rice production. During the early years rice was grown as an upland crop, in small fields adjacent to freshwater streams where water could be easily impounded and applied to the crop. By the early 1700s planters found that upland swamps, such as those in the

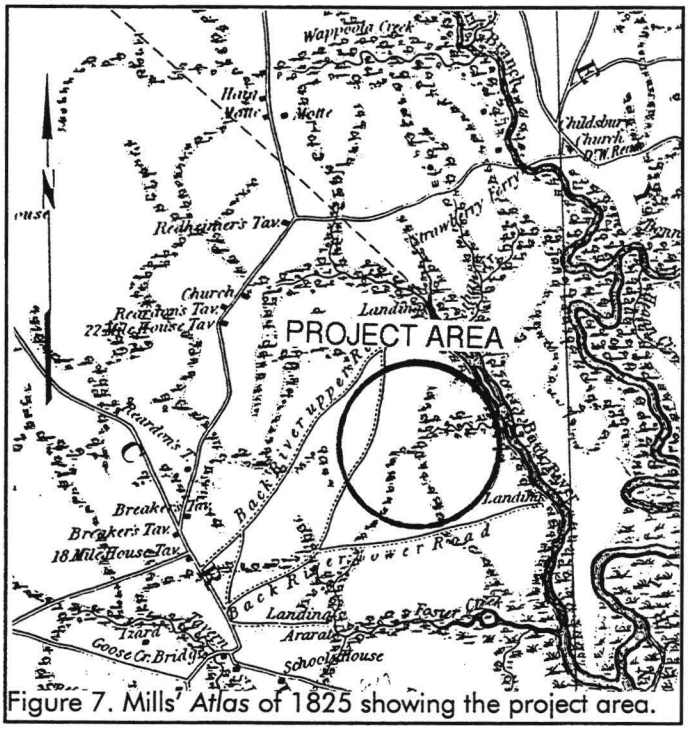

Figure 7. Mills' Atlas of 1825 showing the project area.

Goose Creek area, were even better suited for rice, although the soils were quickly exhausted (Meriwether 1940; Sellers 1934). These upland swamps, distinct from well-drained uplands, remained the focus of Carolina rice agriculture during the entire Colonial period.

Hewat, writing in 1779, describes the process of upland swamp rice cultivation:

> after the planter has obtained his tract of land, and built a house upon it, he then begins to clear his field of that load of wood with which the land is covered. Having cleared his field, he next surrounds it with a wooded fence, to exclude all hogs, sheep, and cattle from it. This field he plants with rice . . . year after year, until the lands are exhausted, or yield not a crop sufficient to answer his expectations. Then it is forsaken, and a fresh spot of land is cleared and planted, which is also treated in like manner, and in succession forsaken and neglected (Hewat 1836).

This rather simplistic commentary failed to observe the engineering feat that upland swamp rice cultivation really was. Clearing, which alone was a monumental undertaking, was followed by the construction of dams, dikes, and trenches. By one estimate, a 500 acre rice field required 60 miles of dikes and ditches (Gunn 1976). Fields were carefully leveled to ensure that they could be completely covered by water. Rice was planted during two periods – March 10 to April 10 and June 1 to June 10 – avoiding May since vast migrations of "rice birds" passed through the state during that period and could destroy a crop. Rice was harvested in late August.

By 1730 the majority of the population of the colony, both rural and urban, was black (Wood 1974). By 1850, 46% of Charleston District's population (which included today's Berkeley County_ consisted of African-American slaves (DeBow 1854), although Hilliard (1984) indicates that more than 60% of the Charleston slaveholders by 1860 owned fewer than 10 slaves. Regardless, there remained vast plantations where the owner's wealth was achieved by the labor of black slaves.

During the eighteenth century the profits to be gained from rice were extraordinary, ranging from 12% to nearly 28% net return on the investment, well exceeding other cash crops, such as tobacco or indigo (see Coclanis 1989). Charleston was the mecca around which the economic, political, and social world of Carolina revolved. Charleston provided the essential opportunity for conspicuous consumption, a mechanism which allowed the display of wealth accumulated from the plantation system.

By the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth century, the rate of return on rice had been reduced, at best, to about 2%, and many years the rate of return was a staggering -3% to -7%. In 1859, just before the start of the Civil War, the return is reported to have

been -28%. As Coclanis observes:

> the economy of the South Carolina low country collapsed in the nineteenth century. Collapse did not come suddenly – many feel, for example, that the area's "golden age" lasted until about 1820 – but come it did nonetheless. By the late nineteenth century it was clear that the forces responsible for the area's earlier dynamism had been routed, the dark victory of economic stagnation virtually complete (Coclanis 1989).

Mills' *Atlas* shows several taverns to the west of the project area, but no structures are shown to be located on the project area itself (Figure 7).

Tract Specific History

The earliest record of the study tract appears to be the May 1726 sale of 900 acres by Nathaniel Moore of St. James, Goose Creek Parish to Mr. Isaac Mazyck of Charleston for £3,500. The most definitive comment concerning the property is that it was bounded to the southwest on Forsters (later Fosters) Creek (Charleston County RMC, DB P6, pg. 277). By 1735 — only nine years later — the property was sold by Isaac Mazyck, eldest son, heir, and executor of Isaac Mazyck, and Paul Mazyck, also an executor, to Benjamin Mazyck for £5,200 (Charleston County RMC, DB P6, pg. 283). The tract, still 900 acres, was again described as bounded to the southwest on Fosters Creek, while surrounding property owners included Nicholas Bennett, John Davis, and Mrs. Anne Davis.

Isaac Mazyck the elder was a Huguenot immigrant who established a thriving mercantile business in Charleston. While it is uncertain if he actively cultivated the Fosters Creek tract, there is a brief mention of his owning cattle (Butler 1983:99). Although his son Isaac followed briefly in his footsteps, his male children all chose to enter planting. Consequently, the 1735 sale kept the plantation in the Mazyck family and may represent the first time that the property was improved.

Over the next 50 years Benjamin Mazyck gradually accumulated additional tracts, substantially increasing the size of his St. James Goose Creek holdings. In August 1773 he acquired 1,205 acres of adjacent plantation land from Alexander Mazyck, the son of his brother Paul for £17,955 (Charleston County RMC, DB P6, pg. 302). Both plantations had been acquired from Alexander's father; one was 880 acres which Paul Mazyck acquired from John Davis and the other was 325 acres that had been acquired from Benjamin Smith. The 880 acre tract was made up of three distinct parcels, partially acquired from John Davis, including the east part of Boochase Plantation. The 325 acre parcel consisted of two distinct plantations. Benjamin acquired an additional 183 acres in December 1786 from James Rockford for £300 (Charleston County RMC, DB V5, pg. 434). Consequently, we see the Mazyck family consolidating a number of smaller tracts — suggesting that there may have been several small plantations occupied for relatively short periods of time.

Benjamin Mazyck became a wealthy planter. At his death in 1800 he owned 89 slaves and 7,625 acres, including 837 acres in St. John Berkeley Parish, 2,288 acres in St. James Goose Creek Parish, 1,500 acres in Winnsboro Township, 3,000 acres in Ninety Six District, two lots in Mazyckboro (surveyed for lots in 1786 by Alexander Mazyck [Poston 1997:585]), and six other town lots in Charleston (Edgar and Bailey 1977:444). Unlike his brother Isaac, Benjamin was not politically active. He declined to serve in the Twentieth Royal Assembly and his only public service appears to have been as churchwarden for St. James Goose Creek in 1736-1737 and again in 1746-1747. He is reported, however, to have been a generous contributor to the Goose Creek Friendly Society and the Ludlam School Fund, as well as a supporter of both the militia and Continental forces during the American Revolution. And while the Mazyck family was prominent in its support of Huguenot causes, Benjamin is not

specifically discussed by Butler (1983) as playing a significant socio-religious role.

Although uncertain, it is likely that the Liberty Hall tract was first developed — and significantly enlarged — during Benjamin Mazyck's tenure. Unfortunately no plats or other detailed documents have been identified from this eighteenth century ownership, although the identified historic documents suggest that he resided on the original 880 acre tract.

At the time of Benjamin Mazyck's death in 1800, only two of his sons — Daniel and Stephen — were still living. Daniel was left two Charleston town lots, three tracts in Ninety Six District, and 837 acres in St. Johns Berkeley Parish. The St. James Goose Creek lands were left in trust to eight friends for the benefit of his son Stephen. The will specified that while his son was to receive all the profits from the plantations, he was "in no case whatever to be in any wise subject to or liable for his debts, charges or encumbrances." Stephen was to have only a life interest, the property passing to his wife, Mary, until her death or remarriage, at which time the property was to pass to Stephen's children (WPA Wills, vol. 28, pg. 79). Far more research would be necessary to help understand whether this trust indicated a lack of confidence in Stephen's abilities or if it was simply a means of ensuring that the property was eventually passed on to Benjamin's grandchildren.

Regardless, the 1801 inventory of Benjamin Mazyck's personal property provides a glimpse of his life and surroundings. The property was appraised at £5078.16.6, with most of the value (£4660) in 74 slaves (not including 15 in Charleston). Other assets were plantation horses (£15), five wild horses, books (£4), old iron, jewels (£5, although "a diamond ring and a gold girdle buckle were refused to be produced to us [the appraisers] by Mrs. Mary Mazyck and were not appraised"), two blunderbusses (20/), a double barreled gun (30/), old carts and wagons (£6), crockery ware (40/), an old silver watch (14/), and silver plate (152 oz., £38.16/6). Household goods were valued at £30 and included two featherbeds, two mattresses, two bolsters, four pillows, four rugs, case of drawers, three mahogany bedsteads, a press, nine mahogany chairs, an easy chair, three mahogany tables, four looking glasses, nine pair of sheets, twelve pillowcases, and four table clothes. These household goods seem rather sparse for a man of Mazyck's wealth, but the appraisers do not specify if there was a Charleston household perhaps not included.

Stephen died in 1808 and his will dramatically reconfigured his father's plantations. To his son Benjamin he devised 600 acres "made of so much of my Brick Barn plantation (purchased by my father from Mr. Alexander Mazyck) as lies south of the Back River Road, and so much of the plantation on which I reside as shall be necessary to complete that quantity, meaning the part containing the buildings and settlement. To be bounded by Foster's Creek, Thomas Smiths, and the remainder of my said plantation." Also devised to Benjamin was the plantation which he had recently purchased from Adam Tunno south of Back River Road.

To his son Alexander, Stephen Mazyck left the small plantation purchased by his father from Rockford, as well as part of the residence tract which wasn't being devised to Benjamin, and 300 acres of the Brick Barn tract closest to the Rockford tract.

Finally, to his son Paul, he left the rest of the Brick Barn Plantation and the part of the Tunno tract that was north of the Back River Road.

The will also commented that the "Canal lately made to Forsters Creek be kept open for the use of my three sons, as appurtenant to their adjoining plantations and be kept in repair at their joint expense" (WPA Wills, vol. 31, pg. 150). Unfortunately, we have been unable to determine exactly where this canal was located — it is not shown on any plat or map of the period and only vaguely discussed in period documents (see, for example, the newspaper advertisement for the plantation below). In fact, Mills' *Atlas* reveals additional features which are no longer present. For example, while the general route of Goose Creek Road follows what is today U.S. 52 between

Charleston and Moncks Corner, both the Back River Lower and Upper roads are no longer clearly defined. It's possible, although not at all certain, that portions of Liberty Hall Road follow the Back River Lower Road (Figure 7).

In 1827 the executors of James Hopkins brought an equity case against Mrs. Mary Mazyck, widow and executrix of Stephen Mazyck; George Elfe and his wife, Mary Jane; and Charles L. Desel and his wife, Caroline. The case, heard in 1834, resulted in the court ordering that a portion of the Mazyck lands be sold at public auction. On February 18, 1834 "all that plantation on the northern side of Fosters Creek, 2740.5 acres, being formerly composed of several tracts and commonly called Buckhorn, Rockford and Mulberry, known as the property and residence of Benjamin Mazyck Sr., and described in his will of 10/31/1796" was sold to Charles L. Desel for $7,800 (Charleston County RMC, DB H10, pg. 114).

The newspaper advertisement for the plantation portrays the Mazyck tract as an active — and likely profitable — plantation:

> a great portion of which is well supplied with wood and timber, and within a short carting distance of several landings; [2740.5 acres,] 177 acres of which are prime Inland Swamp, with sufficient quantity of water to flow; the whole of which is cleared and under good banks. The Provision Land is of the very best, and has always yielded abundantly — the range for cattle and stock is fine. This plantation is situated on Foster's Creek, upon which there is a body of valuable Rush land, which might be easily brought into cultivation. This plantation is in all respects worth the attention of those who are disposed to make investments in agricultural pursuits. A Canal has been cut from the head of Foster's Creek up into the Oak Swamp, for the purpose of conveying the wood to the Landing, which has been used formerly, and could with a little repair be made again useful for the same purpose. . . . The Plantation is in perfect planting order, with 6 new Negro Houses, and all other necessary outbuildings &c. (Charleston *Mercury*, February 18, 1834).

As the advertisement suggests, Desel was apparently "disposed to make investments in agricultural pursuits." He was the son of Charles Desel, a prosperous Charleston cabinetmaker. At his father's death in 1807, Charles L. Desel, a physician, was heir to some property, as well as $1,000, to be placed "toward his schooling and bringing him up to a decent profession" (WPA Wills, vol. 31, pg. 35).

Desel appears to have added to the tract. The 1850 Agricultural Census and Slave Schedules for Desel show him with 3,252 acres, 250 of which was improved, with the property valued at $7,000. There were five horses, four mules, 20 milk cows, 50 other cattle, 25 sheep, and 25 swine, with the livestock valued at $1,200. With the $100 of farm implements, the plantation's 56 slaves had produced in 1849 8,900 pounds of rice, 700 bushels of corn, 490 bushels of oats, 100 bushels of peas, 150 bushels of potatoes, 300 pounds of butter, and 3 tons of hay. This accounting does not suggest that the plantation was especially profitable — the rice production is minuscule by comparison with the great Cooper River plantation. It may, however, in combination with the other crops, been sufficient to sustain the labor force and yield a small profit, while retaining the investment value of the land and timber. In other words, while the 56 slaves were almost certainly involved heavily in rice cultivation, the Desel plantation was small and likely was viewed more as an investment, or perhaps as a country estate, than as a means of making great wealth.

There is evidence that Liberty Hall was

viewed as recreational property, with several accounts of hunting parties on the plantation:

> Hunting seems to have been an important part of life at Liberty Hall Plantation, from the nineteenth century well into the twentieth century. During Desel's ownership of the land in the antebellum era, Dr. John Bachman was a frequent visitor and hunter at Liberty Hall. Bachman was the pastor of St. John's Lutheran Church on Archdale Street in Charleston, and was a friend of John James Audubon, the famous naturalist and painter. Through the connection with Bachman, Audubon was an occasional visitor and hunter at Liberty Hall (Bailey et al. 2002:44).

Desel died about 1854 and his will reveals that the property was to pass to his wife, Catherine, and then be divided equally among his children. A plat (Charleston County RMC, PB B, pg. 6) was prepared about this time, showing the plantation settlement (including both the main house and a slave settlement of at least 12 structures) to be off the study tract to the southeast. The plat (Figure 8) reveals that the rice fields consisted of must of what is today Brick Bound Swamp, with the reserve situated in the northern third of the study parcel. By this time Liberty Hall Road was present. Two plantation landings are shown on Fosters Creek — both off the study tract.

The inventory of Desel's estate indicated that there were 86 slaves (28 of them children), along with eight mules, three horses, 50 head of cattle, 30 hogs, and furniture valued at $250. The sparse inventory indicates that Desel, a wealthy enough man, did not keep a fine house at Liberty Hall. Instead, there must have been a spartan, albeit serviceable, farm house. While there is no inventory of his Charleston house, it is likely that Desel spent most of his time in the city.

By 1859 the property was sold by the Desel family to Ephraim S. Mikell for $10,800. For the first time the property is referenced as Liberty Hall Plantation, although we have no additional information on the origin of this name. At this time the plantation was described as bounding north on the Estate of William Bell; northeast and east on P.G. Stoney, Esq.; east on Brick Hope Plantation owned by Charles Graves; southeast, south, and southwest on Fosters Creek; west on How Hall belonging to the Estate of T.J. Smith; west and northwest on Upper Back River Road (Charleston County RMC, DB L14, pg. 178). The same day Mikell gave Desel a mortgage on the tract for $7,200.

Unfortunately, data for Mikell's production at Liberty Hall is missing from the manuscript agricultural census for 1860, although an E.Y. Mikell had 62 slaves in St. James Goose Creek Parish. This is likely Eliza Y. Mikell, the widow of Ephraim S. Mikell and, by about 1861, the owner of Vinegar Hill Plantation on Edisto Island (Freedmen's Bureau Record notes in files of Mr. David Lybrand, Edisto Island, South Carolina).

As a result of an equity case brought by Eliza Y. Mikell, administratrix, against Ephraim S. Mikell, et al., a special referee's order of December 1, 1869 directed the sale of Liberty Hall. The parties, "particularly C.M. Desel who is entitled to the proceeds of sale on his mortgage," agreed to sell the tract to J.C.H. Claussen for $4,000 in January 1870 (Charleston County RMC, DB O15, pg. 521). The earlier plat of the property was updated as a result of this sale (see Figure 8), with the letter "A" designating the 2,777 acre Liberty Hall tract, "B" showing the 554 acre Bushawac Tract, and "C" indicating the 270 acre Rockford tract.

Claussen held the property for just over two months before selling it in late March 1870 to E.R. Morris for $10,000 (including a $7,500 mortgage) (Charleston County RMC, DB P15, pg. 17). By January 1872 Claussen had brought a foreclosure suit against Morris and in June the property was auctioned (Charleston County RMC DB G16, pg. 2). Claussen acquired the property

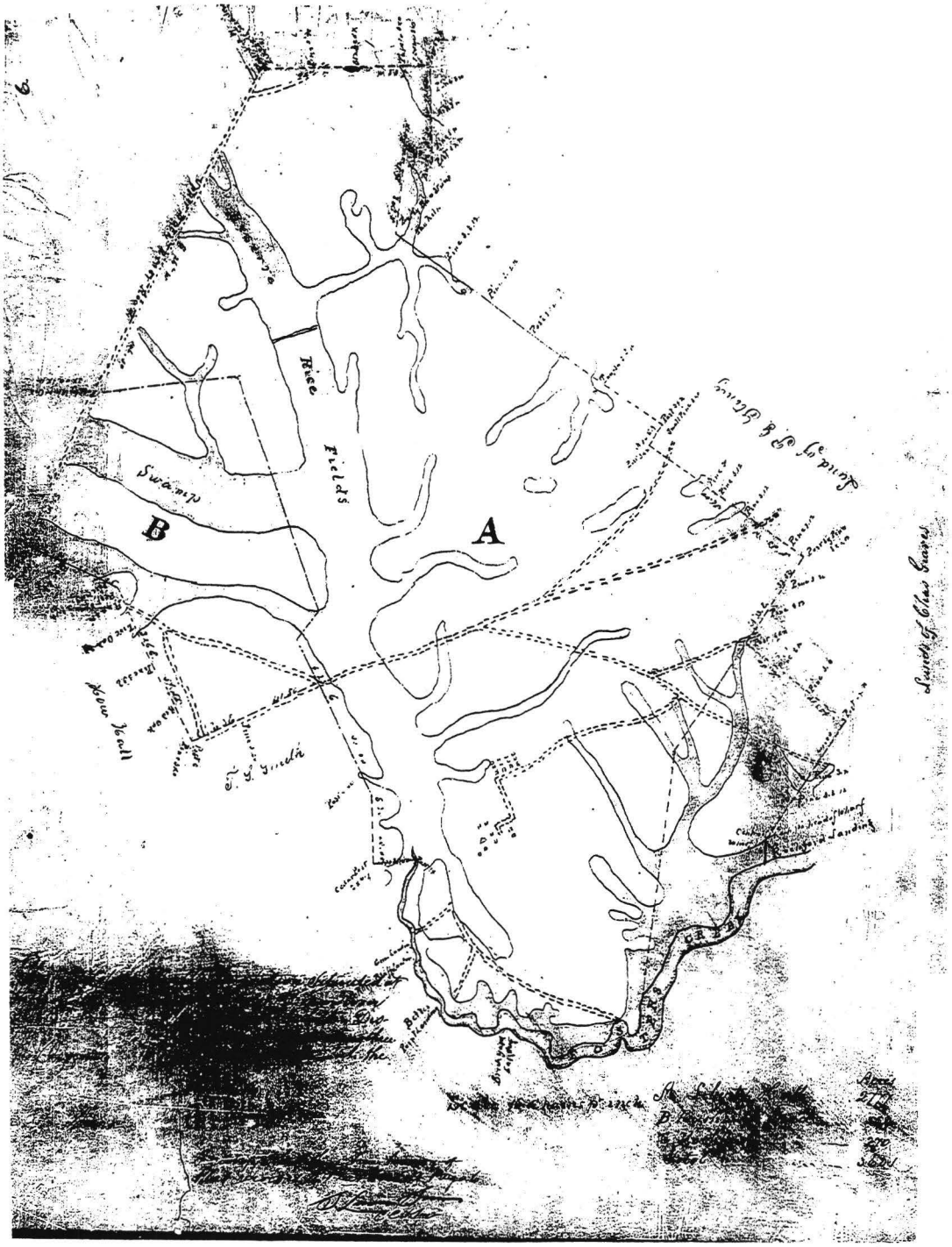

Figure 8. Plat Book B, Page 6, showing the plantation settlement.

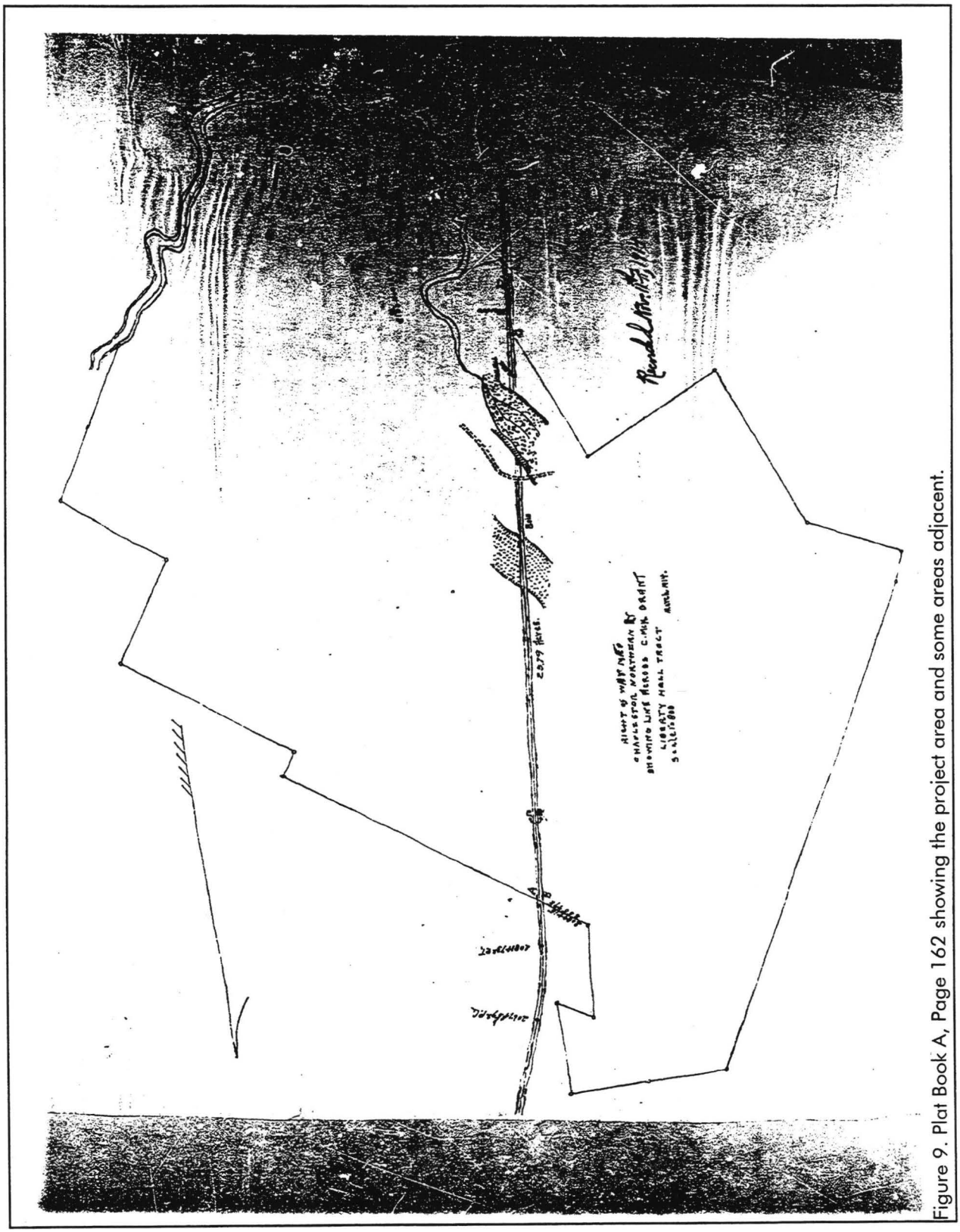

Figure 9. Plat Book A, Page 162 showing the project area and some areas adjacent.

again, holding it until its January 1875 sale to Louis Seel for $4,000 (Charleston County RMC, DB R16, pg. 193).

While it was not possible to identify the property (under Claussen, Morris, or Mikell) in the 1870 agricultural census, it does appear in the 1880 records under Louis Seel, Jr. Of the 3,601 acres only 40 were improved and the whole plantation was valued at only $4,000. On the farm were implements worth only $30, as well as $15 in fencing. In 1879 Seel bought no fertilizer and paid only $120 in wages for five weeks of "colored labor." Crop production had been limited to planting Indian corn, making only 200 bushels on the 40 acres, not enough to even feed the livestock. Seel's cattle, however, probably ran free, so were not fed, but he bad luck with the livestock as well. He had bought 107 head in 1879 and managed to sell only 35. With 50 head having died, strayed, or been stolen, at the end of the year he had 17 cows, 16 sheep, 20 swine, and 20 poultry. The value of the livestock, including two horses, a mule, and two working oxen, was $900. The year's production on the farm was estimated at $200, barely paying for the African American labor force.

There is gap in the title between ca. 1880 and 1888, when Joseph C. Blaney, a Charleston butcher, sold the parcel to Edward J. Hanahan for $6,000 (Berkeley County RMC DB A4, pg. 137). Hanahan appears to have also had bad luck at Liberty Hall. In June 1893 he assigned some of his property in trust to Julian Mitchell, Jr. for the benefit of his creditors and by November 1893 he was forced to sell the plantation at auction to Colin McK. Grant for $6,500. The property was "said to contain a large and valuable deposit of phosphate rock" and the deed went on to specify that the property included by this time a 15-foot wide strip intended for the construction of a railroad,

> together with all the buildings, structures, machinery, fixtures, engines, cars, phosphate mining implements and tools and their appurtenances and generally all the appliances and personal property now on the said premises and forming the phosphate plant and appliances heretofore used by Hanahan in his phosphate mining business conducted in and upon the said Liberty Hall Plantation (Charleston County RMC, DB A38, pg. 578).

This description suggests that Hanahan focused not on agricultural activities, but rather phosphate rock mining. Since it is pretty clear that no mining was taking place on the property in the early 1880s (Guerard 1884), it is likely that the mining activity was begin by Hanahan after his purchase in 1888. There is no indication that the phosphate mining was continued by Grant, so these activities may have spanned five years or less.

Colin McKenzie Grant was a Charleston investor, building contractor, and real estate speculator (Poston 1997:166-167, 456). He was responsible for the construction of a number of residences on the peninsula, most notably the Colin McKenzie Grant Homes on upper Meeting Street. This complex was planned to provide inexpensive housing for older people "of good character."

By 1902 Grant leased the timber rights on Liberty Hall to Freeman S. Farr (Berkeley County RMC, DB C5, pg. 69). Farr subsequently leased these rights to Robert L. Montague of the E.P. Burton Lumber Company. Grant also granted a right-of-way across the property "to be used for a permanent road or tramway of a permanent branch railroad or tramway." In November 1914 Grant agreed with the E.P. Burton Lumber Company to grant that right-of-way to the Carolina, Atlantic, and Western Railway (which later became a part of CSX) (Berkeley County RMC, DB C15, pg. 314). It is unclear from the easement if the original logging railroad that had been built by this time was overlaid by the main line tract. This railroad, however, became the division line between the "modern day" Liberty Hall Plantation (of which this survey covers the western portion) and that the east part of Liberty

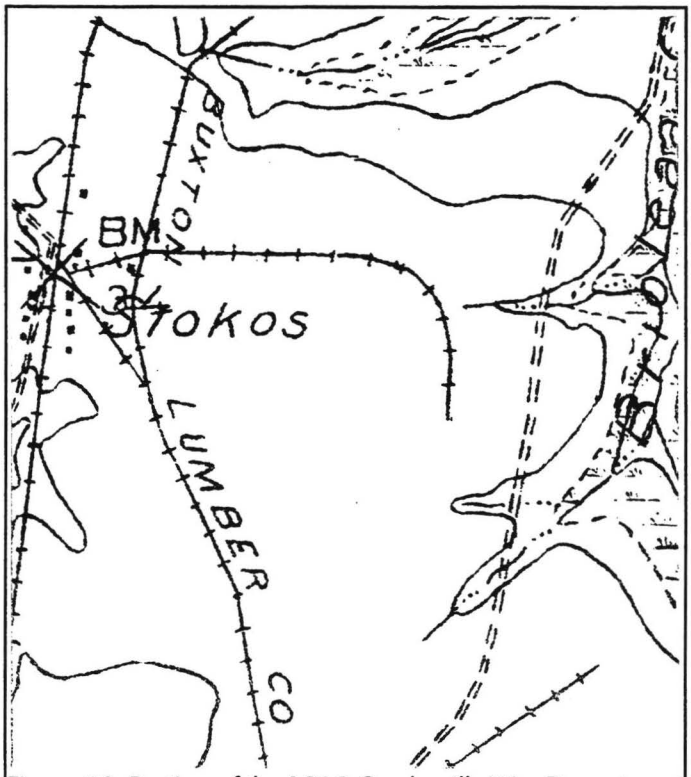

Figure 10. Portion of the 1919 Cordesville War Department Topographic Map.

Hall Plantation in the twentieth century which today belongs to the Federal government.

Other than these timber rights, Grant did not actively operate Liberty Hall. During his ownership the plantation was leased to a hunting club, whose members included Edward Frost Lowndes, Frank C. Ford, and David Huguenin. They built a clubhouse southeast of the railroad line — and outside of the study tract (Berkeley County RMC, PB A, pg. 162; see Figure 9). Situated on a knoll associated with a oak avenue, the clubhouse was probably located on the site of Desel's antebellum plantation house (Bailey et al. 2002:44).

Of special interest is the 1919 Cordesville War Department topographic map (Figure 10). This map reveals the new railroad tracks, identified as Sea Board Air Line, as well as the original tram road just slightly further to the east — off the study tract. This tram line is identified on the topographic map as "Buxton Lumber Co.," which is probably a misidentification of Burton Lumber Company. The map also reveals a small settlement, identified as "Stokos," but more than likely, "Stokes," at the junction of the main line and the Burton tram. The community consists of about 11 buildings, five west of the railroad and on the study tract and six off the tract, just east of the railroad.

The E.P. Burton Lumber Company was established by Northern capitalists who were drawn to the vicinity by land costing only a dollar an acre and taxes of a penny per acre. They initially purchased 48,000 acres of land on the East Branch of the Cooper River in 1902, but quickly added stumpage rights on additional tracts — such as Liberty Hall. Their mill was constructed on the Cooper River, near the Charleston Navy Yard. While an initial review failed to identify the community of Stokes, Fetters does provide considerable information on another nearby community, Conifer. This was a permanent village built by Burton to house its rail employees:

> There was one street with four-room houses on either side for the white foremen and their families. Because of poor drainage, the houses were set on piles. Near the center of the village was the company house where the two foresters lived. At the far end of the street, the railroad crossed between the last three buildings and the rest of town. Here was the superintendent's office, company store, blacksmith's sop and the company boarding house. There were four other houses along the railway and some distance offwas the stable and some cabins for the use of the black workers. Most of the unmarried men chose to live

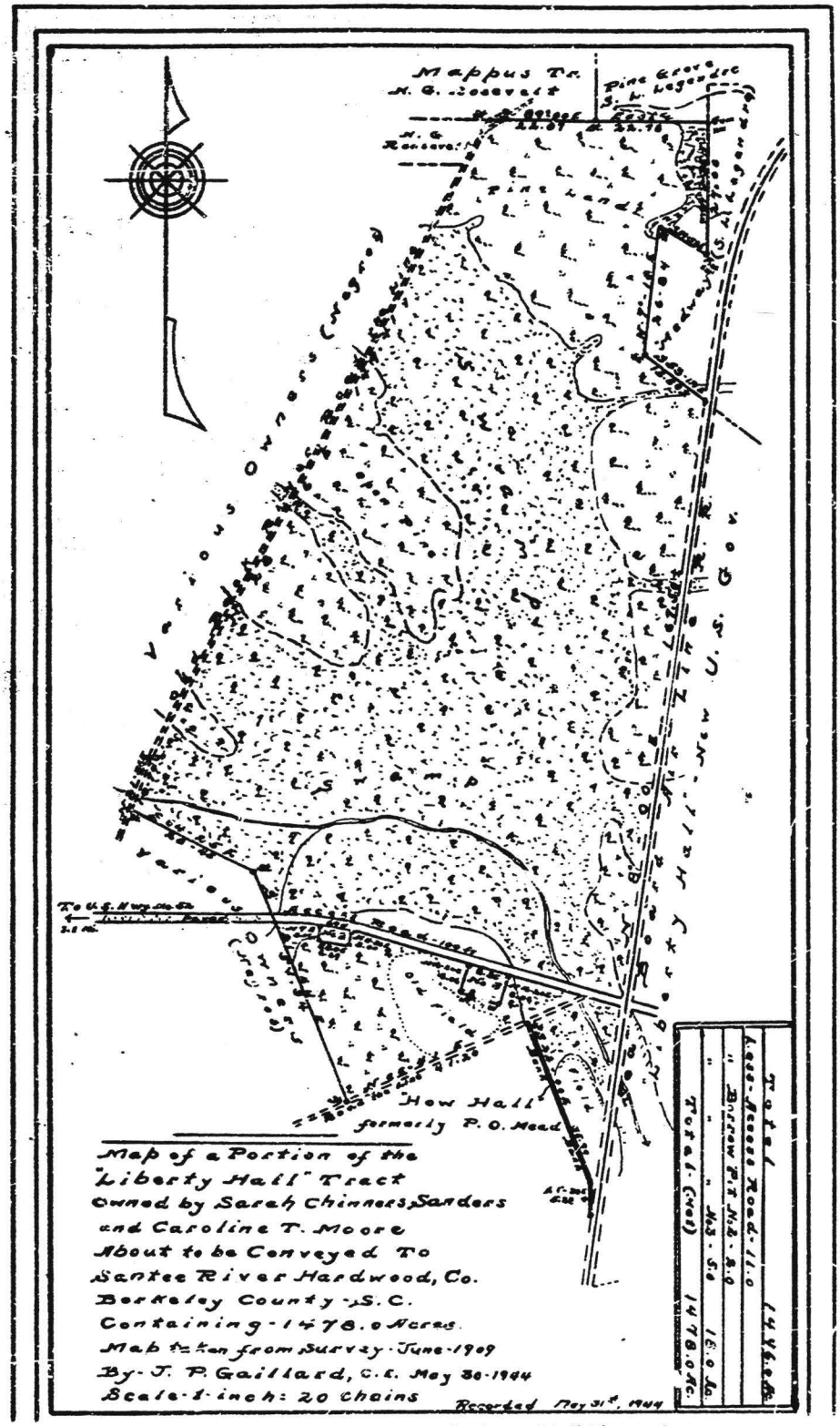

Figure 11. Plat Book C, Page 188 showing a portion of Liberty Hall Plantation.

in the boarding house. Water for the village and for the steam engines was supplied by an artesian well (Fetters 1990:17).

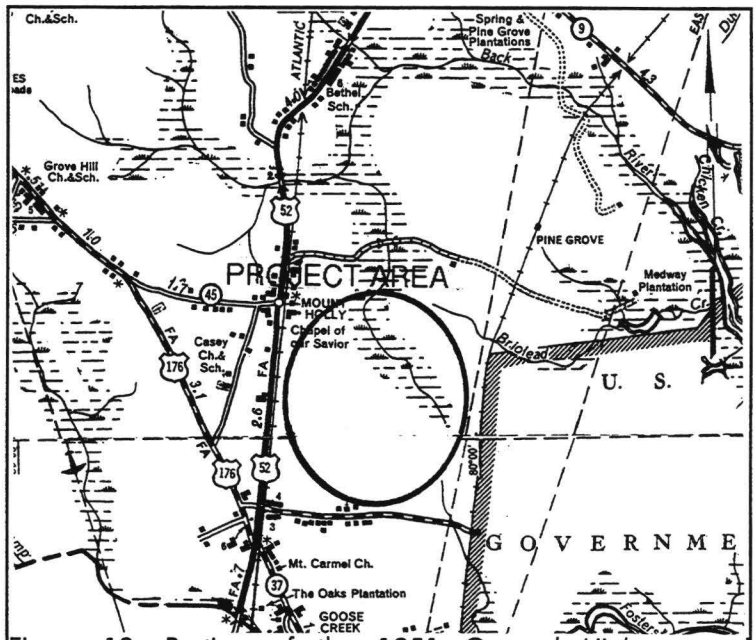

Figure 12. Portion of the 1951 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Berkeley County*.

Additional description of the village earlier in its history was also provided:

> The town of Conifer was built in 1902, and the houses were estimated to cost $300 each. They were built three feet from the ground, "double-floored, sheeted with inch boards covered by German siding, sealed on the inside, and the roof rafters were to be covered by boards, edge and edge, then tar papered and covered with tar and sand coating." Two or three men were assigned to live in the one-room dwellings.
>
> A cook's house prepared the meals for the mean who lived in the forest, and the cost of this board varied "from $8 to $10 per man per month (sic)". The men were fed rice, butts, "grits, ham, cabbage, beans, sweet and Irish potatoes, biscuits and coffee" (Fetters 1990:22).

While uncertain at this time, it seems likely that Stokes may have been another logging community or camp built up at the convergence of the main line and several Burton tram lines. While a number of structures from this settlement were located on what is today part of the Charleston Naval Weapons Station, no remains were found during that survey and the historical background does not mention the settlement (Bailey et al. 2002).

The Liberty Hall property was sold by the Colin McK. Grant Home in June 1943, with the study tract, west of the Seaboard Air Line Railroad line, being purchased by Sarah Chinnis Sanders for $12,000 (Berkeley County RMC, DB C38, pg. 233). Only 10 days later she conveyed a half-interest in the property to Caroline T. Moore (who had advanced half of the purchase price of the plantation) (Berkeley County RMC, DB A71, pg. 234). In May 1944 Sanders and Moore sold the 1,478 acre plantation to the Santee River Hardwood Company for $35,000 (Berkeley County RMC, DB C40, pg. 60). Figure 11 shows the plantation at that time (Berkeley County RMC, PB C, pg. 188). There are no structures shown on the plantation, which is in either swamp or forest. In March 1962, Santee River Hardwood conveyed the tract to Turner Lumber Company (Berkeley County RMC, DB C58, pg. 202). In December 1976 Turner Lumber Company conveyed Liberty Hall Plantation in two undivided portions: one to Richard H. Friedburg of Connecticut, and the other to W.A. Moncrief and W.A. Moncrief, Jr. of Texas (Berkeley County RMC, DB A321, pg. 110). For reasons that aren't documented in the available historic records, the Moncriefs identified several tracts on which they

reserved oil rights. The 1951 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Berkeley County* (Figure 12) fails to identify any structures on the plantation into the second half of the twentieth century.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with few modifications. At the time of the archaeological survey, an engineering survey was being completed and a series of transects 1,000 feet apart had been cut roughly east-west across the tract. These cut lines, numbered 1 through 10, served as base lines from which our transects were run in a northerly direction. Consequently, individual shovel tests would be identified by a "cut line" and a "transect number." Access was also generally good throughout the parcel because of a number of well-maintained hunting roads.

All transects were physically examined, although no shovel tests were excavated in areas of standing water or swamp. In some portions of the tract the survey was hindered by a number of beaver dams which had been recently constructed. Although no archaeological sites were found in these lowland areas (and none were expected), we did attempt to record the locations of obvious ricefield dikes. These features, while not assigned archaeological site numbers, are briefly discussed in the following section of this study.

The GPS positions were taken with a Garmin GPS 12XL rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was a vital concern for the study area.

GPS accuracy is generally affected by a number of sources of potential error, including errors with satellite clocks, multipathing, and selective availablity. Satellite clock errors can occur when the satellites' clock is off by as little as a millisecond, or when a slightly-askew orbit results in a distance error. Multipathing occurs when the signal bounces off trees, chain-link fences, or bodies of water. Multipathing was probably not a significant source of error for this study since the site area was clear and our reading was taken in the center of the site. The source of most extreme GPS errors is selective availability (SA), the deliberate mistiming of satellite signals by the Department of Defense. This degradation results in horizontal errors of up to 100 m 95% of the time, although the error may be as much as

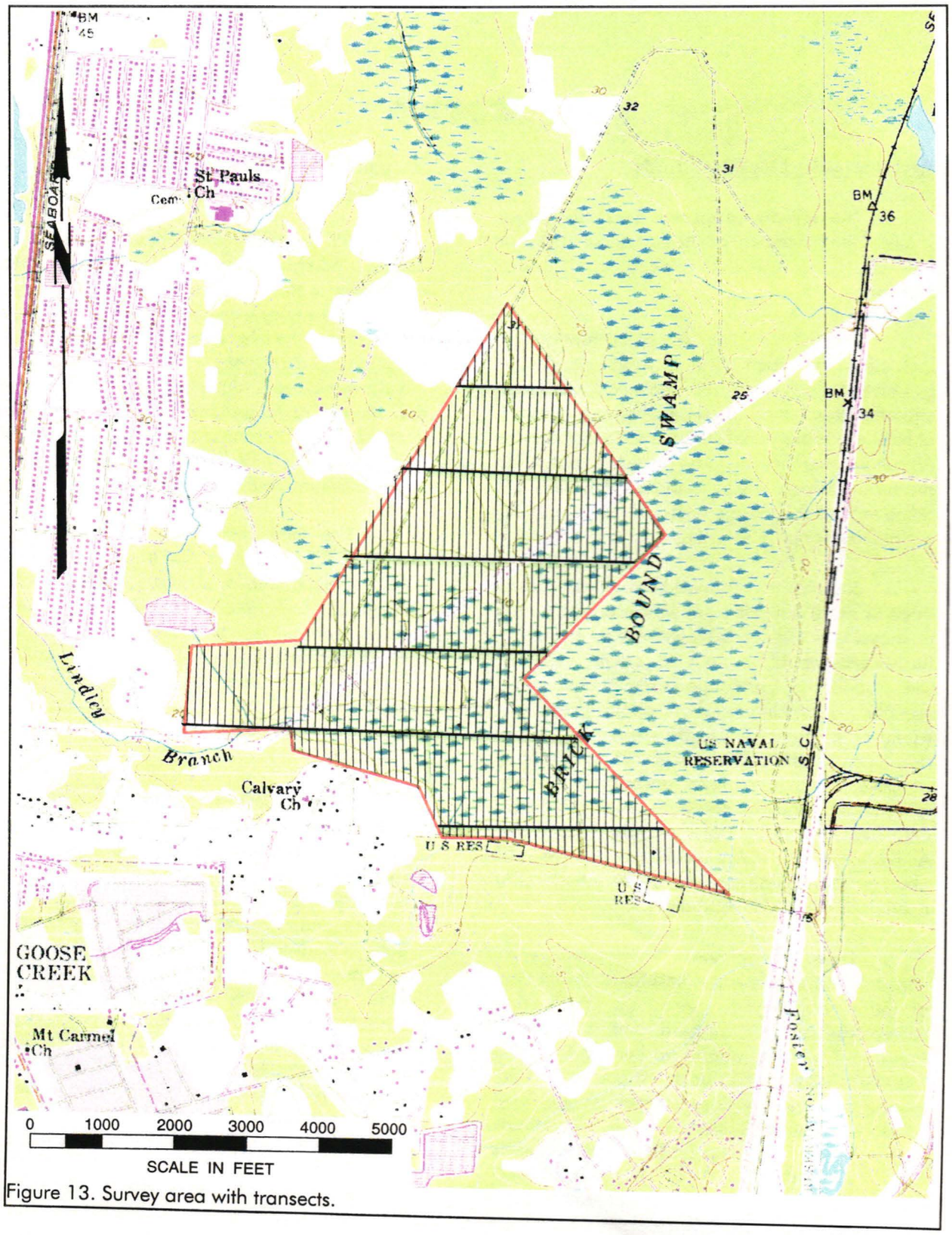

Figure 13. Survey area with transects.

300 m. Nevertheless, selective availability has been turned off by the DOD. We have previously determined the 3D[1] and DGPS readings with the Garmin 12XL were identical. Therefore, we relied on 3D navigation mode, with expected potential horizontal errors of 6 m or less.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 1.0 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those sites which "retain some measure of [their] historic integrity" (Vivan n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or

[1]A basic requirement for GPS position accuracy is having a lock on at least four satellites, which places the receiver in 3D mode. This is critical – as an example, positions calculated with less than four satellites can have horizontal errors in excess of a mile, or over 1,600 m.

sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials — the physical items used on and in the property — are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. The site forms for the identified archaeological sites have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes and photographic materials have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of historic remains follow such authors as Price (1970) and South (1977). Prehistoric materials were defined by such authors as Yohe (1996), Blanton et al. (1986), and Oliver et al. (1986).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

This study involved the excavation of 1680 shovel tests on transects spaced 100 feet apart along eight cut lines in the high ground area. While no shovel tests were excavated in swamp areas with standing water, these areas were walked where it was safe to do so (i.e., the water was less than 2 feet deep). As a result of this cultural resources survey one archaeological site (38BK1900)was identified (Figure 14). This site is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places for its potential to yield important information. While not assigned SCIAA site numbers, this survey also identified several sections of remnant rice dikes (see Figure 14) and these, too, are discussed below.

The architectural survey revisited two of the three previously identified structures (Figure 14). Both had been previously determined not eligible and this survey concurs with that finding. The third structure could not be identified and has been demolished since the original survey.

Archaeological Site

38BK1900

Site 38BK1900 consists of a surface and subsurface scatter of eighteenth century remains and a small prehistoric component. It is situated on a ridge top at an elevation of about 25 feet AMSL and is bordered by Brick Bound Swamp to the north (Figure 14). Immediately to the south is Liberty Hall Road, which provides access to the site. Parallel to the road is a sewer easement which is periodically bush hogged. Topography in the area is slightly undulating, but the site is on a fairly level tract of land with a gentle slope to the north, into the swamp.

The vegetation in the area consists of mixed pines and hardwoods with swampland bordering the northern edge of the site. There is evidence that the site has been logged, perhaps 20 to 40 years in the past, based on rotting pine stumps. While there is some undulation in the ground surface and a few remnant ruts, there are no debris or other indications of recent logging or disturbances.

The few artifacts found on the surface were recovered in areas of disturbance, such as the dirt road which bisects the site or the adjacent easement where bush hogging has caused ground disturbance. The site was initially encountered in shovel testing along Cut Line 1 and a series of four artifact concentrations were originally recognized (designated Areas A-D). These areas were combined based on the similarity of the recovered specimens, the close proximity of the various areas, and our belief that all four represent loci within one "site" or cultural activity area. The artifacts from the shovel testing are generally small and fragmented, possibly the result of subsequent logging and/or agricultural activity. In spite of this, distinct concentrations of materials — including brick and plaster — have been found.

Table 1.
UTM Coordinates for 38BK1900
(NAD27 datum)

Area	Easting	Northing	Size (in feet)
A	592657	3651409	400x250
B	592379	3651462	300x350
C	592462	3651397	150x50
D	592236	3651515	100x150

Figure 15 illustrates the site in its entirety, while Figures 16 through 18 illustrate the four areas showing the shovel testing grid used at each one. Table 1 provides UTM coordinates for the

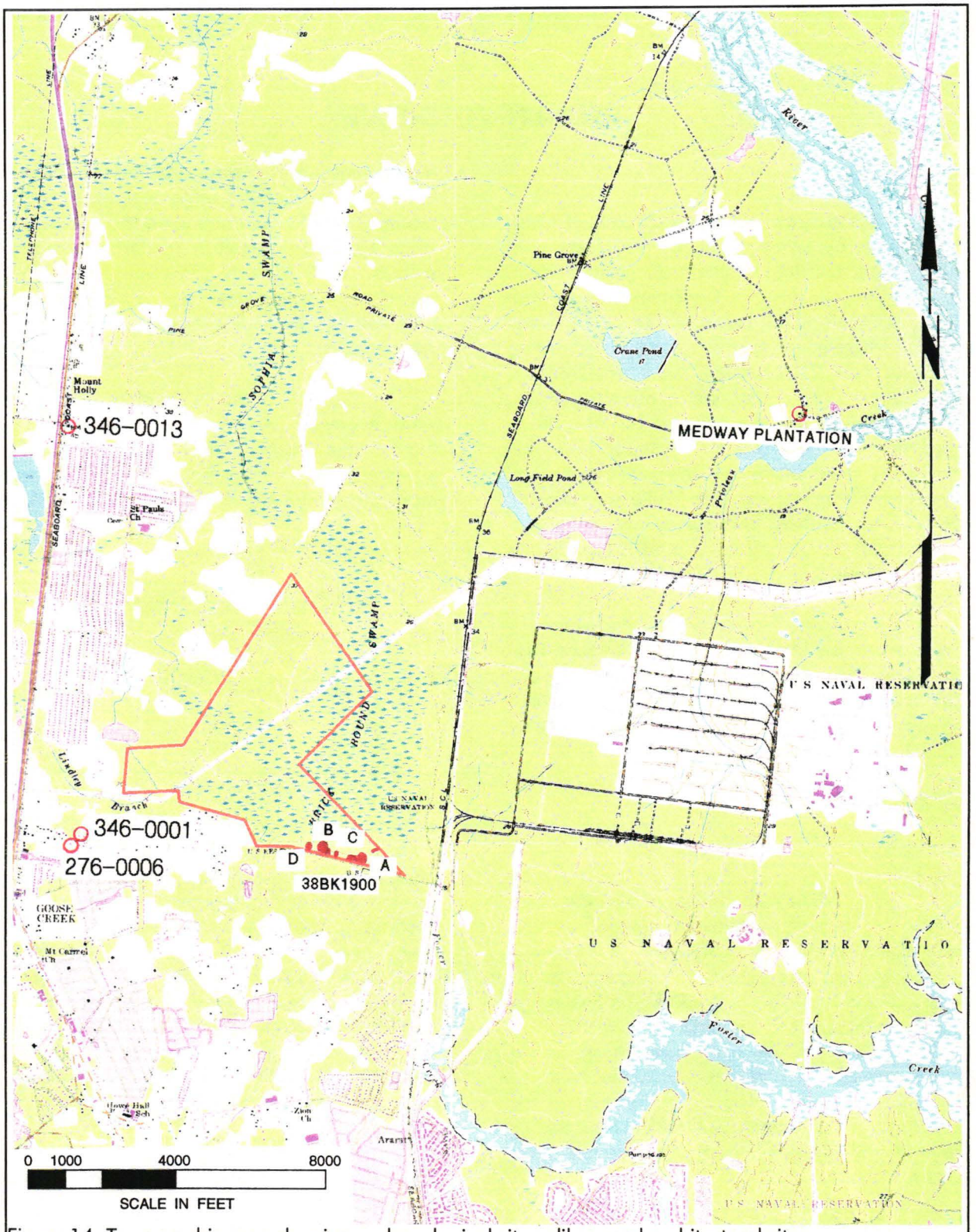

Figure 14. Topographic map showing archaeological sites, dikes, and architectural sites.

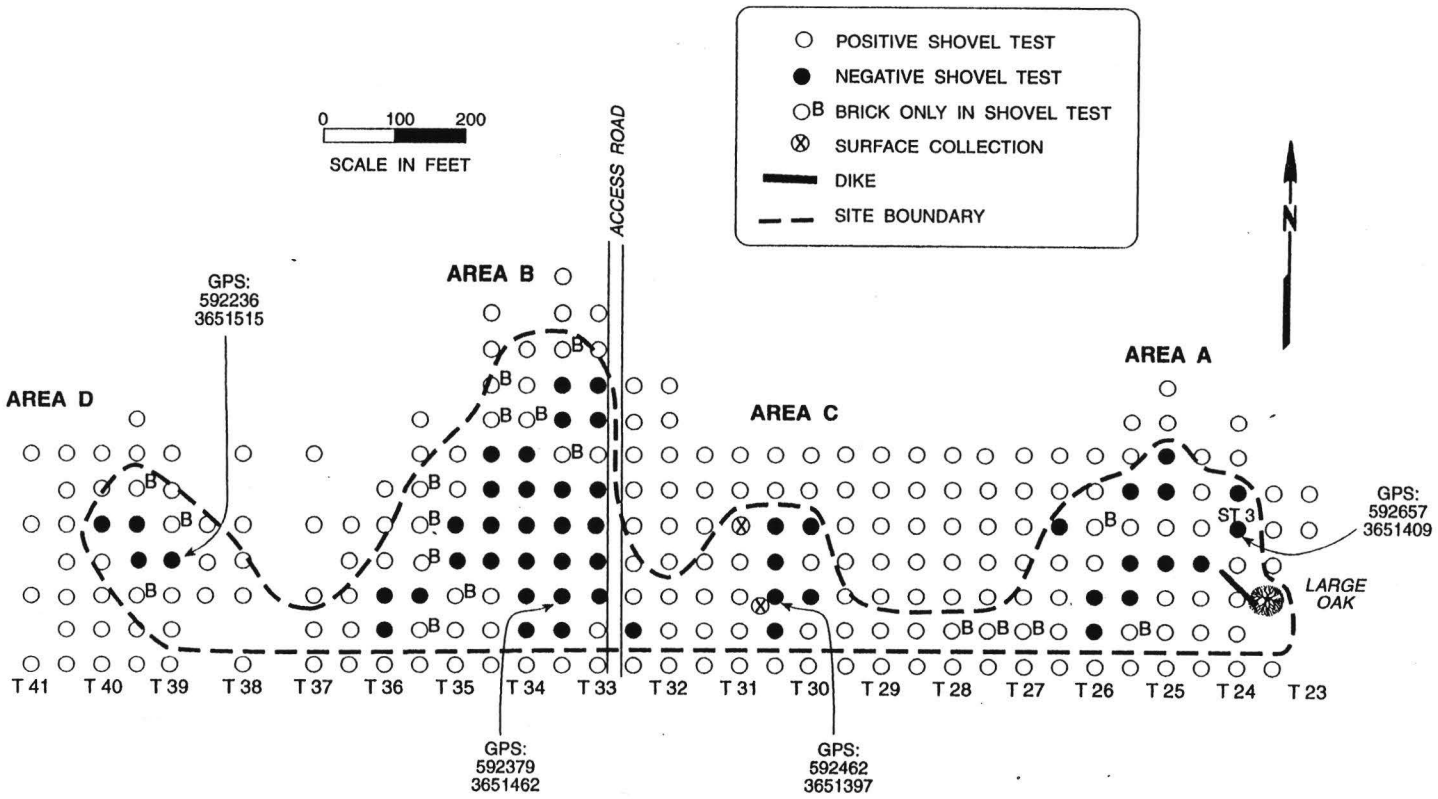

Figure 15. Sketch map of 38BK1900, showing Areas A-D.

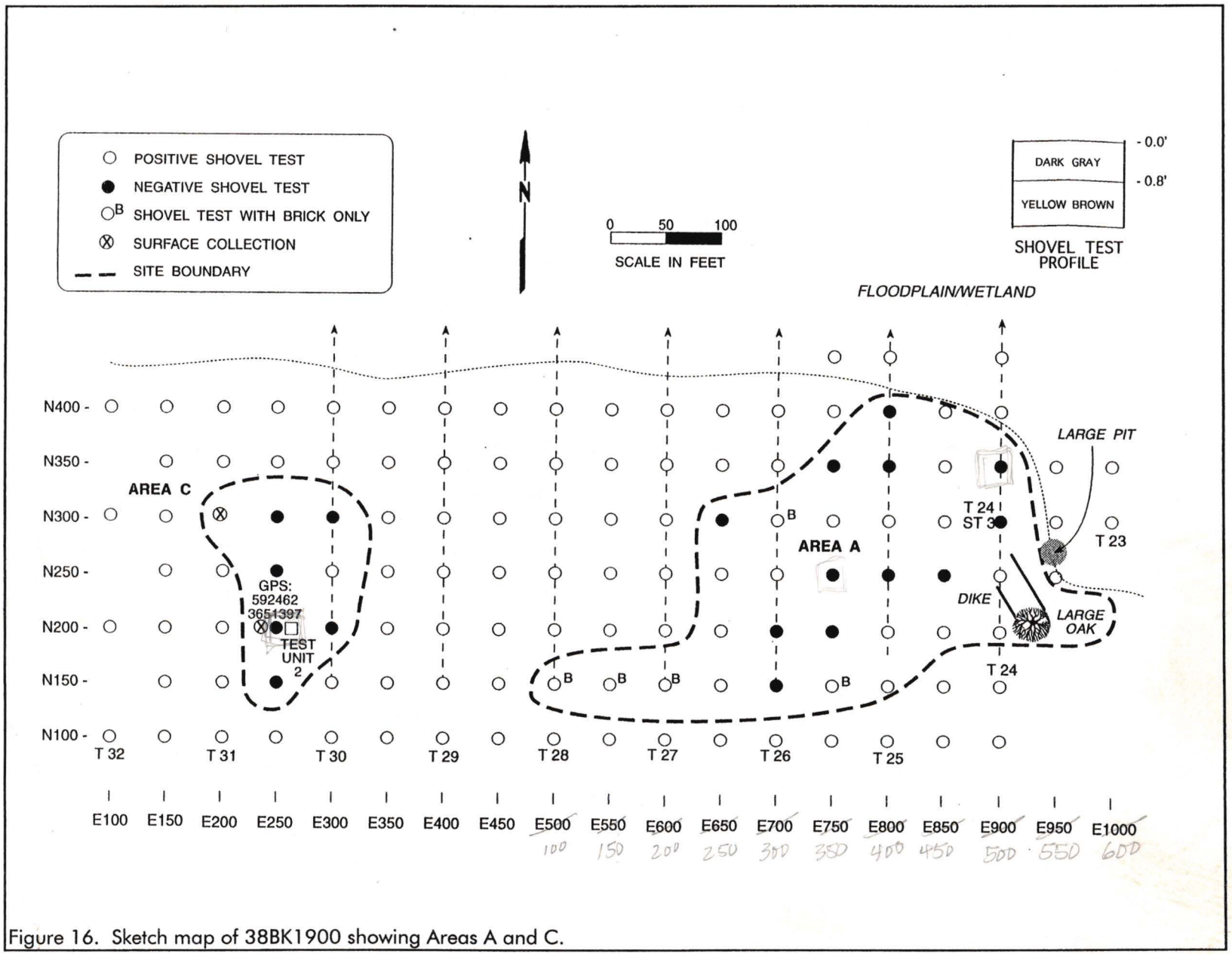

Figure 16. Sketch map of 38BK1900 showing Areas A and C.

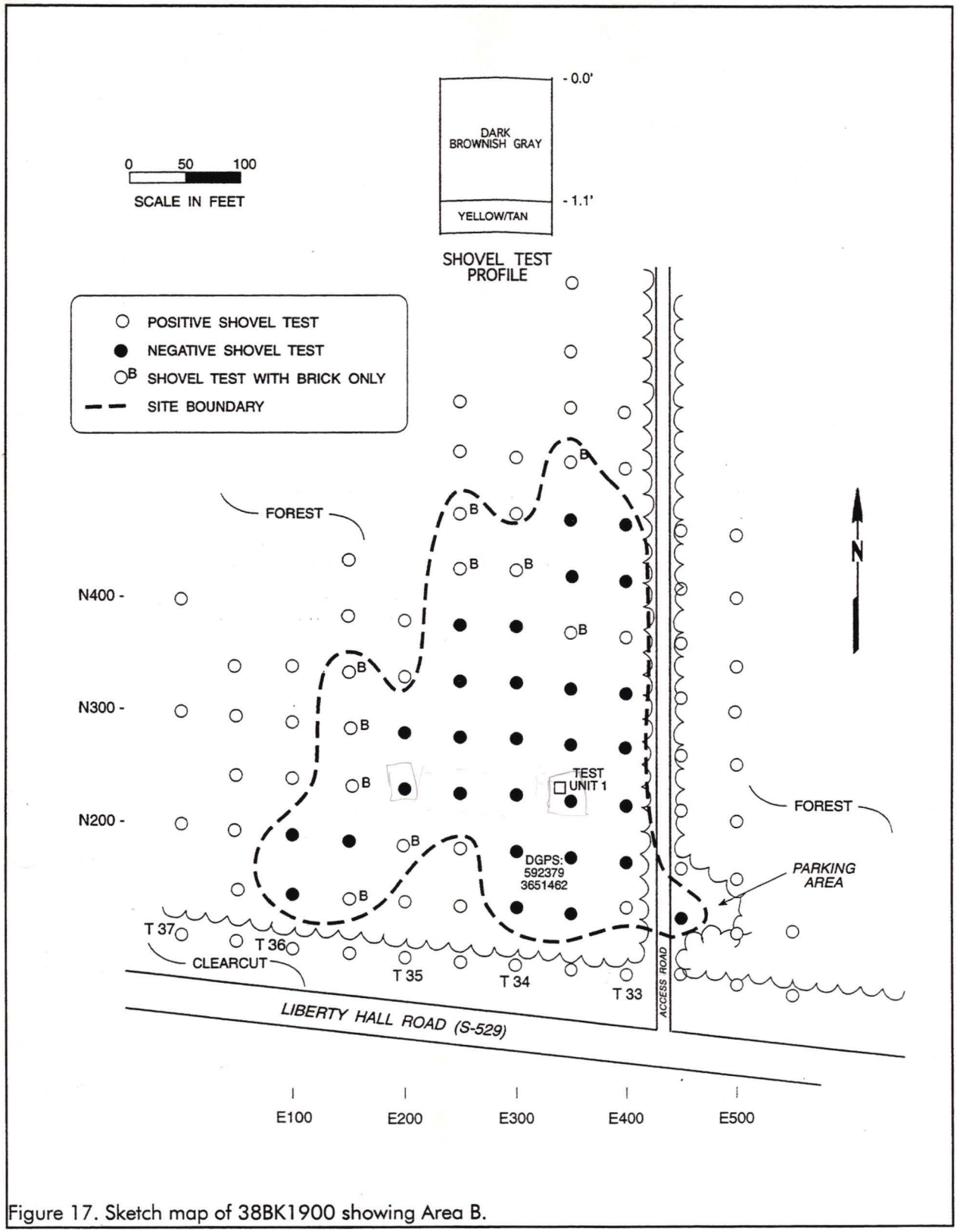

Figure 17. Sketch map of 38BK1900 showing Area B.

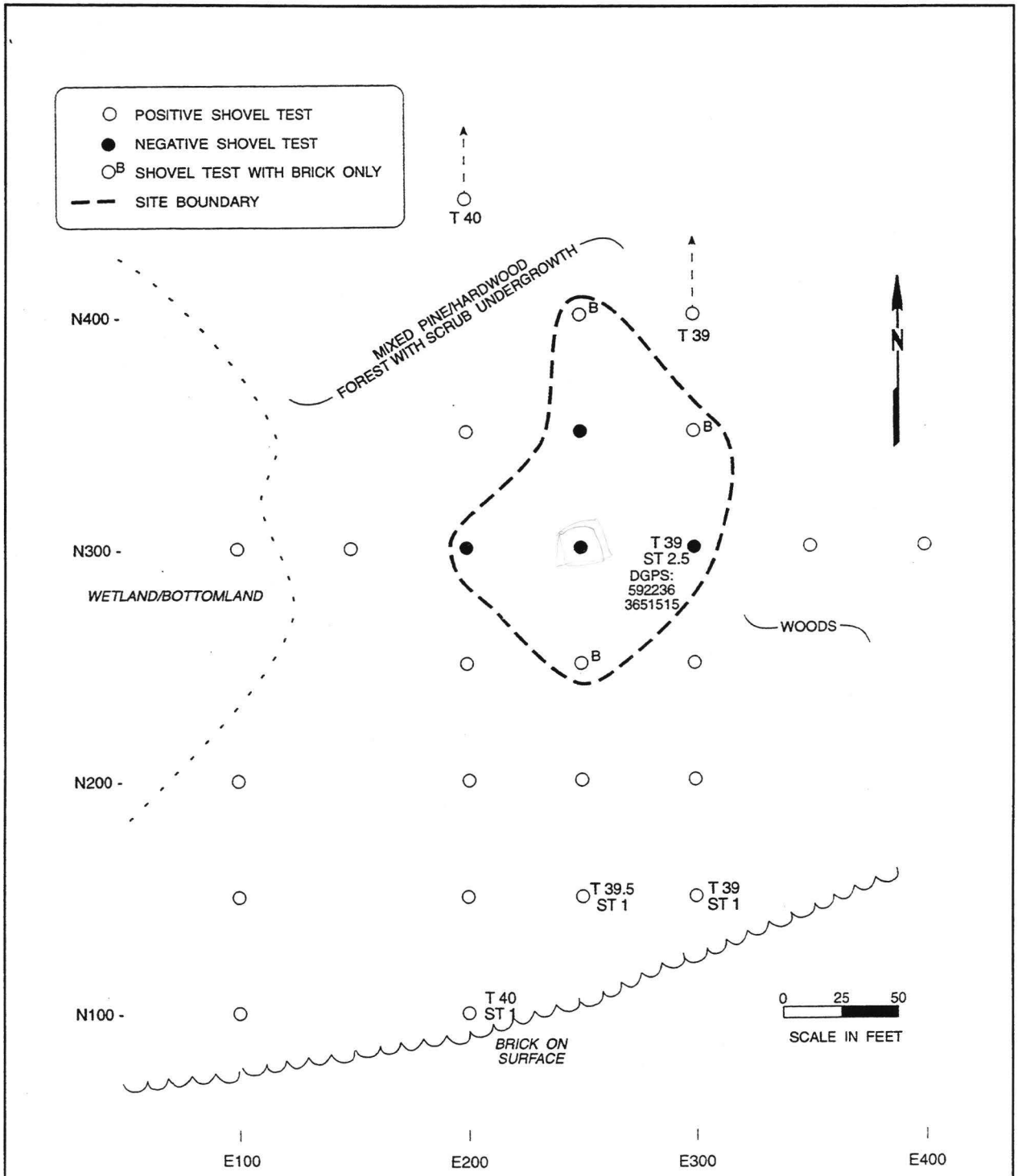

Figure 18. Sketch map of 38BK1900 showing Area D.

four areas.

Shovel tests were completed at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals, while additional transects were placed at 50-foot intervals from the sewer easement at Liberty Hall road up to the swamp edge (where cultural remains were no longer being identified). A total of 130 shovel tests were excavated in the 1,650 foot by 400 foot (east/west by north/south) site. Of the 130 tests, 51or 39% of these tests were positive with artifacts and an additional 18 tests (or 14%) were positive yielding only brick.

Shovel tests in the site area produced profiles which generally resemble Duplin fine sandy loams. We generally found an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR5/6) clay loam which often extended to a depth of 1.3 feet (Figures 16 and 17 reveal some of the variability found at the site). Shovel tests were typically excavated to a depth of 1.0 foot in order to examine the possibility that remains might be found in the subsoil. It appears that all the remains came from the Ap horizon, although a few prehistoric remains were found in the subsoil (the presence of these sparse remains is attributed to animal or root distances).

Once the shovel tests were complete, two 1.5-foot units were also excavated to obtain additional information on artifact density and diversity, as well as soil profiles.

Unit 1 was placed at N250E350 in Area B. This was an area of dense remains identified in shovel testing and our goal was not only to obtain a larger sample of those artifacts, but also to see if features (either soil stains or in situ brick) might be present. The unit revealed a thin lens (about 0.2 foot) of dark gray (7.5YR4/1) humus over 0.6 foot of brown (7.5YR4/2) loam with dense brick and mortar inclusions. The base of the unit, identified as subsoil, was a heavily mottled red (2.5YR6/8) and reddish yellow (7.5YR6/8) firm clay. Although the unit was small, two possible features were identified. In the northeast corner there is an area of very dark gray (7.5YR3/1) loam, while along the west wall there is what appears to be half of a post hole, filled with brown (7.5YR4/2) loam. Neither were excavated at this time.

Unit 2 was placed at N200E250 in Area C, selected on the basis of an average density of remains (although the density was significantly lower than found in the vicinity of Unit 1). The test was again 1.5 feet square and all fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh. This unit revealed an Ap horizon 0.7 foot in depth of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loam over a subsoil of dark gray (10YR4/1) clay loam. Artifact density was lower, but the remains were generally identical to those found in Unit 1.

Both units indicate that there has been some disturbance, from either logging or cultivation, in the upper soil zones. Nevertheless we found no extraordinary or extreme disturbances (such as chunks of wood, fragments of clay subsoil, or burned debris) in the Ap horizon. Consequently, we do not believe that the logging at this site has caused damage sufficient to call into question the integrity of the archaeological remains. In addition, the density of the remains identified at each area, and especially in Area A, suggests that the site integrity in adequately preserved to allow the site to address significant research questions.

Table 2 itemizes the artifacts recovered from the shovel tests as well as the two units. The artifacts represent a range of items commonly associated with late colonial plantations, including Colono ware, delft, slipware, Westerwald, and creamware. The presence of pearlware suggests that the plantation remained active at least into the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The presence of plaster in Unit 1 indicates that at least one structure is relatively high status — probably a main house, flanker, or kitchen. The presence of a very large quantity of animal bone suggests that Unit 1 may be in the vicinity of a kitchen. Regardless of the specific structure function, the refuse is dense and well preserved.

Table 3 reveals a mean ceramic date of

Table 2.
Artifacts from 38BK1900

| | | Area A | | |

Table 3.
Mean Ceramic Date for 38BK1900

Ceramic	Date Range	Mean Date (xi)	# (fi)	fi x xi
Underglazed blue porcelain	1660-1800	1730	1	1,730
Westerwald	1700-1775	1738	4	6,952
Lead glazed slipware	1670-1795	1733	7	12,131
Decorated delft	1600-1802	1750	14	24,500
Plain delft	1640-1800	1720	32	55,040
Creamware, undecorated	1762-1820	1791	9	16,119
Pearlware, blue transfer printed	1795-1840	1818	4	7,272
edged	1780-1830	1805	2	3,610
annular/cable	1790-1820	1805	1	1,805
undecorated	1780-1830	1805	2	3,610
			76	132,769

132,769 ÷ 76 ≈ 1747

1748 for the artifacts from 38BK1900 (combining the four areas, shovel tests, and unit excavations; if only the unit excavations are considered the remains are dated to 1778). This suggests that the site may date back to the early ownership of the property by Benjamin Mazyck (who acquired the core tract in 1735).

This discussion has revealed that 38BK1900 contains a broad range of intact data sets. Artifacts include a typical range of domestic refuse, including ceramics (both European and slave made), glass, and nails (indicative of architectural remains). The investigations have even resulted in the recovery of a blue glass bead, generally considered to diagnostic of slave occupations. As well as these remains, the site has also produced a data set of architectural remains consisting of brick, mortar, and plaster which may be helpful in reconstructing the nature of the structures present. One test unit has produced what are likely features, indicating that subsurface contexts may be present. And that same unit has produced a large quantity of animal bones, indicating that considerable information may be available on the dietary patterns of the site occupants.

Our second concern, or step, is to understand the historic context — and the questions which these data sets may be able to address. The archaeological and historical data suggest that the context is one of a rice plantation owned and operated by a very wealthy and influential Charleston family. Moreover, the plantation — based on the available archaeological and historical data — remained under the control of not only one family, but one individual throughout its occupation. This represents an extraordinary situation which allows trends and patterns identified in the archaeological record to be unambiguously associated with this one individual.

Clearly there are many questions appropriate to the early colonial settlement of the Goose Creek area, ranging from the lifeways of early rice planters to the social and economic importance of the Huguenot Mazyck family. There are also questions associated with the architecture which might be expected at a plantation of this

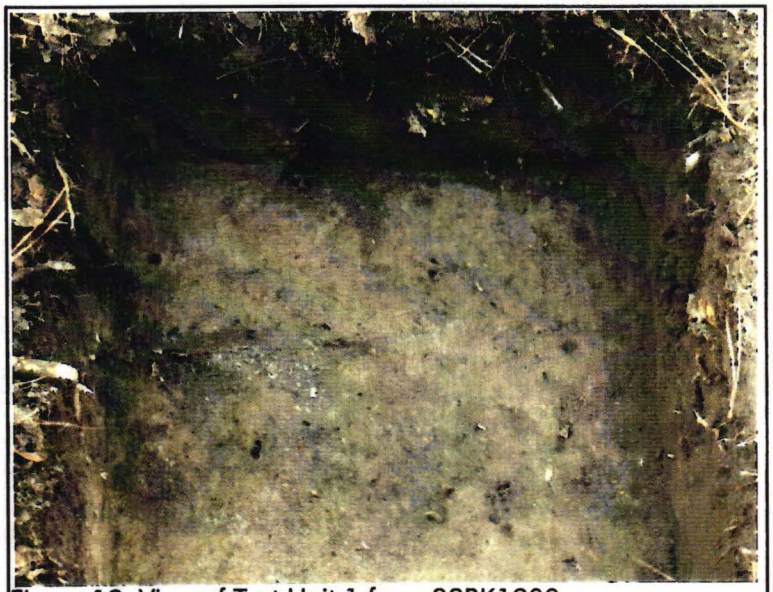

Figure 19. View of Test Unit 1 from 38BK1900.


Figure 20. View of excavations at a test unit from 38BK1900.

early time period in the Goose Creek area. Since Colono wares are present on this very early site, another series of questions could focus on the design and manufacture of this ware, as well as its place or context in the plantation setting. In each case there seem to be adequate data sets to allow the question to be addressed. Moreover, we have the ability to compare the results of the inquiry to the data sets and analysis available from Broom Hall Plantation, also situated in Goose Creek (Trinkley et al. 1995).

Our final critical issue is whether these archaeological data sets possess clear and convincing integrity — and we believe they do. As mentioned earlier, while there is evidence of logging, this is a cultural process which is common throughout the Charleston area. Just as it is the nature of the urban environment to evidence "disturbance," so too is the nature of the rural Charleston area to evidence "logging." Considering logging a consistent, and overwhelming disturbing activity, would eliminate virtually every archaeological site from consideration — and would be unjustified. At 38BK1900 we found no evidence of logging debris buried in the Ap horizon, or of uniformly deep rutting, or of deep plow scars for replanting. In addition, the presence of discrete artifact concentrations also suggests that artifact movement of dispersion is


Figure 21. View of a dike and large oak on the survey tract looking northeast.

not significant at this site.

As a result, we recommend 38BK1900 eligible for inclusion on the National Register under Criterion D, information potential. We recommend that if the site cannot be green spaced in its entirety that data recovery excavations be conducted.

Figure 22. Site 276-0006, view to the south.

Rice Dikes

During the survey of the study tract a number of remnant dikes were encountered. While such features are occasionally identified, they are rarely recorded as archaeological sites (and were not so recorded during this study). We did, however, obtain locational information (using mapping grade GPS) and the various features are shown in Figure 14.

Based on the available historic information it appears that the northern portion of the swamp running through the survey tract was the "reserve" where water for the rice fields would be stored until needed, while the southern portion was more actively used for the cultivation of the rice. It is perhaps no surprise, therefore, that most of the identified dikes are found in the southern portion of the study area — where the rice fields would have been carefully ditched and diked in order to maintain the water levels.

The dikes encountered by this work are typically 3 to 4 feet in height and 6 to 10 feet in width at their base. The crest is often no more than 2 feet in width, although it is likely that there has been much side slope erosion. While some of the dikes seem remarkably free of vegetation, a few (see Figure 21) evidence trees of very significant size, indicating the age of the earthworks.

While these features (whether considered sites or structures in the context of the National Register) are interesting relics of the past, and some are very well preserved, we do not believe that they — either individually or as a group — are eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. We believe that the current level of recordation — mapping at a very basic level — is adequate and captures the information which these features are able to provide. No additional management activities are necessary, pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

Historic and Architectural Resources

As previously discussed, there are no previously recorded National Register buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area, although Medway Plantation (listed on the National Register in 1970) is situated just *beyond* the proposed 1-mile APE.

Stoney (1938:47) notes that Medway was constructed in 1686 — only 16 years after the founding of Charles Town — and goes on to


Figure 23. View of 346-0001, looking northeast.

comment:

> That the influence of Van Arrsens' architecture, though thoroughly encisted in additions, has kept this house looking as if it had as good right to be standing over a canal in the Low Countries of Holland as beside rice fields in the Low Country of South Carolina is a triumph of style over circumstance (Stoney 1938:47).

Somewhat more cautiously, Lane reports that Medway, while certainly the oldest brick structure in South Carolina, is "not as old as traditionally reported" (Lane 1984:15). He details how the original structure, constructed in 1691, was destroyed by fire in 1704, being rebuilt about 1705. At that time it was described in the *South Carolina Gazette* as " a good brick house, 36 feet in length, 26 feet in breadth, cellars and kitchen under the house." Yet he also observes that, "today this building has been completely obscured by changes and additions" (Lane 1984:15).

Regardless, the structure is over 1.3 miles from the proposed Liberty Hall development tract — beyond the APE. This intervening distance, consisting of woodlots, is controlled by Medway and provides a consistent visual and physical buffer. The proposed undertaking will have no affect on the property.

There are three previously recorded architectural sites in close proximity to the study tract (Schneider 1989). Although all have been recommended not eligible for listing on the National Register, they were briefly reviewed by this study.

Site 276-0006 (Figure 22) is an unnamed house dating to about 1920. It evidences replacement concrete block piers, a rear addition, replacement aluminum vents at the gable ends, replacement porch supports, and insect screening on the front porch. Because of these modifications we concur that the structure is not eligible for inclusion on the National Register and no additional management activities are recommended.

Site 346-0001 is also an unnamed house dating to about 1925 (Figure 23). This structure was previously noted as having replacement concrete block piers and a garage addition, both contributing to the previous recommendation of not eligible. We concur with this previous recommendation and finding, and recommend no additional management activities.

Both sites 276-0006 and 346-0001 are situated on Liberty Hall Road in an area of rapid growth. They are surrounded by commercial activities, cell towers, trailers, and other intrusions. The proposed Liberty Hall development will not result in any additional affects on the properties.

Figure 24. View of the reported vicinity of 346-0013, now demolished.

The last previously identified site, 346-0013, is situated off US 52, just north of Mount Holly. It was described as the Mount Holly Post Office/Linder House, built ca. 1915. At the time of the study the structure was determined not eligible by the SHPO. At the time of this study we were not able to relocate the structure and the mapped location is currently undergoing extensive development (Figure 24).

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 672 acres of land for the construction of single family dwellings. The project area is located in the southwest portion of the city of Berkeley County, near the town of Goose Creek. This work, conducted for Centex Homes, examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project area and is intended to assist this organization in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation, one archaeological site, 38BK1900, was identified. 38BK1900 appears to be an eighteenth century slave settlement which is situated on a ridge top surrounded by old rice fields. This site is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Place due to its ability to provide information about the early plantation life in the Goose Creek area.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 1.0 mile APE. No structures were found which retained their integrity other than those previously recorded by Scnheider (1989). Two of these previously recorded sites were re-identified. They were originally recommended, and found, not eligible. This more recent survey found the structures substantially as they were last reported and we concur that their modifications make them not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. A third site, also originally reported not eligible, could not be relocated during this survey and we believe that it has been demolished in the 13 years since it was recorded.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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